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ABSTRACT

This collection of nine articles addresses current issues in the education of language teachers, with special reference to the teaching of English as a Second Language (ESL) and conditions in the Asia-Pacific region. The articles include: (1) "Reflective Teaching in TESOL Teacher Education" (Jack C. Richards); (2) "Developing Productive Thinking in Preservice Student Teachers" (Hyacinth Gaudart); (3) "Models and the Knowledge Base of Second Language Teacher Education" (Richard R. Day); (4) "Preparing Teachers To Use a Meaning and Structure Based Methodology" (Elizabeth Gatbonton); (5) "In Tandem: Preparing Singapore Teachers for a Changing Primary English Classroom--The Singapore Experience" (Maureen Khoo, Amy Sobrielo, Maha Sripathy); (6) "Becoming a Researcher: Teacher-Conducted Research and Professional Growth" (Geoff Brindley); (7) "Program Accreditation Through Institutional Self-Study and Peer Validation" (M. Soenardi Djiwandono); (8) "From English to Filipino: Training Teachers for the Great Shift in Social Studies in the Philippines" (Andre Gonzalez); and (9) "Language Teacher Education for Social Cohesion" (Ian G. Malcolm). Each article is followed by a reference list. (MDM)

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ED 370 356

ISSUES IN LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION

REGIONAL LANGUAGE CENTRE

SEAMEO

Edited by

EUGENIUS SADTONO

ANTHOLOGY SERIES 30

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ISSUES IN LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION

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Edited

by

Eugenius Sadtono

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CONTENTS

	Page
Foreword	iii
Introduction	vi
Reflective Teaching in Tesol Teacher Education *Jack C Richards*	1
Developing Productive Thinking in Preservice Student Teachers *Hyacinth Gaudart*	20
Models and the Knowledge Base of Second Language Teacher Education *Richard R Day*	38
Preparing Teachers to use a Meaning and Structure Based Methodology *Elizabeth Gatbonton*	49
In Tandem: Preparing Singapore Teachers for a Changing Primary English Classroom - The Singapore Experience *Maureen Khoo, Amy Sobrielo and Maha Sripathy*	69

Page

Becoming a Researcher: Teacher-Conducted Research and Professional Growth 89
Geoff Brindley

Program Accreditation Through Institutional Self-Study and Peer Validation 106
M Soenardi Djiwandono

From English to Filipino: Training Teachers for the Great Shift in Social Studies in the Philippines 120
Andrew Gonzalez, FSC

Language Teacher Education for Social Cohesion 135
Ian G Malcolm

List of Contributors 155

FOREWORD

RELC is very much concerned with language teacher education, in fact it is one of our main preoccupations, as we regularly train language teachers from within Southeast Asia and outside the region on short-term as well as long-term bases.

Language teaching is both an art as well as a science. The science part, such as methodology, techniques and assessment are relatively 'easy' and teachable, whereas the art part is difficult to teach as it is elusive and to a large extent depends on the personality of the teacher; so language teacher educators are faced with formidable tasks in training their students to become good teachers.

The articles in this anthology cover a rather wide area of language teacher education related to the above issues. As reflective thinking and teaching seems to be the trend nowadays, we have included papers on this topic at the beginning of the anthology. If we want our student teachers to be able to think on their own feet, to be critical and creative, we need to read Jack Richard's, Hyacinth Gaudart's and Richard Day's articles carefully. In Asian context, reflective thinking is very important if we want to make our student teachers more creative. Once the teacher is self-reflective, s/he will be able to make a big difference. But the training to make our student teachers reflective requires a tremendous effort on the part of the teacher trainers as Gaudart has attested in her article.

In order to produce full-fledged teachers, reflective thinking alone is insufficient, it should be supported by a good model of language teacher education, which would include a solid knowledge base of the relevant content as well as skill subjects, in addition to a variety of experiences and activities, such as micro teaching, simulation, practice teaching and studying. All these components will hopefully produce integrated teachers.

To become a good teacher is virtually a lifetime job, as we never feel confident whether what we have taught really facilitates our students to understand and master the subject. This holds true particularly if we are assigned to teach in a culturally different environment. Different settings seem to require different art of teaching as exemplified in Gatbonton's article.

In our fast-changing world, we realise that language teacher education has to keep pace with other developments in society. As a result, curriculum changes become more frequent and upgrading of teachers becomes part and parcel of Ministry of Education programmes. But we should be mindful of change for the sake of change, as in fact it takes a rather long time for a curriculum to bear fruit (good or bad), and if we are in hurry to change curriculums, we will never be able to know whether the new curriculum is really better than the old one we replaced. The Singapore experience in this anthology is interesting to read on this matter.

When we have taught for several years, complacency sets in, as we think we are already well-seasoned. The number of years we have accumulated for teaching is no assurance that we are good teachers as we might unconsciously repeat all our bad habits accumulated from experience. So to avoid complacency, we need to undertake research, action research in particular, to diagnose our own teaching. Only by conducting such a research will we see our own shortcomings and can rectify them. Geoff Brindley's article paves the way for us to understand more on this matter.

In order to produce well-qualified teacher graduates, language teacher education institutions should be kept ship-shape. In order to do so, institutional evaluation is in order. The evaluation will have to be conducted regularly from time to time, say every five years. It will have to take into consideration all aspects and components, academic and otherwise, which are contributory to the production of quality language teachers. In this case an accreditation system-is to be recommended, particularly if the accreditation is valid only for a limited period of time, so that the accredited institutions do not fall into self-gratification too long

once they have accredited. The Indonesian experience presented by Soenardi Djiwandono is a good example of an effort to undertake institutional evaluation.

It seems that language teachers never lack problems. The situation in the Philippines as Andrew Gonzalez expounds in his paper is a case in point. The teachers - those teaching social sciences - have to struggle hard to switch from using English to Filipino. The problems are: (a) that to many of them Filipino is a second language which they have to master and (b) that Filipino is not sufficiently sophisticated yet to handle social sciences. Perhaps it would take a decade to overcome the problems.

Can language teachers improve social cohesion through language education? It looks like a tall order for teachers. But Ian Malcolm argues that it is possible, with certain conditions of course. To support his arguments, he deals extensively in the issues of social cohesion.

We sincerely hope that this anthology will contribute worthwhile ideas to language teacher educators, student teachers and those who are interested in language teacher education in general.

Edwin Goh

RELC Director

Singapore

Introduction

As an introduction to language teacher education in this anthology, Jack Richards' article on 'Reflective Teaching in TESOL Teacher Education' is an eye-opener. In his paper he classifies approaches to teacher education into two categories: the top-down approach and the bottom-up approach and he then compares them. The top-down approaches to teaching are referred to as theories of teaching involving application of knowledge or theory to teaching; whereas the bottom-up approaches to teaching are approaches using 'the teacher's actual teaching experiences as the basis for constructing theories and for developing notions of effective teaching.' The teachers thus construct the theories themselves.

In the top-down approach, the writer argues that research-based and methods-based views of teaching reflect an essentially negative view of teachers - what he calls the "teachers as idiot" philosophy, that is left to their own devices, teachers will invariably mess up things. But if they are provided with methods to follow, they will presumably be able to teach well.

On the other hand, the bottom-up approach assumes that 'teachers, rather than methods, make a difference, that teachers are engaged in a complex process of planning, decision making, hypothesis testing, experimentation, and reflection, that these processes are often personal and situation-specific, and that they should form the focus of teacher education and teacher professional development'. I would call it 'teaching as an art'.

One of the implications of bottom-up approaches to teacher e[illegible]ation is the shift in emphasis from teacher 'training' to teacher 'education' and 'development'. In order to achieve the goal of education and development, the training on reflection and critical inquiry is a must. This can be achieved by conducting different programmes, such as observation of oneself and others, team teaching, and keeping a diary.

The writer concludes his article by identifying a number of recurring themes in current work in second language teacher education.

Now that we know something about reflective teaching from Jack Richards' article, Hyacinth Gaudart's paper on developing productive thinking in pre-service student teachers serves as reinforcement for our understanding of reflective thinking for teacher education. Her article describes the learning experience of three TESL teacher educators (she was one of them) as they attempted to encourage productive thinking in thirty six student-teachers. Their success, failures and problems encountered by the teacher educators as well as the student teachers during the research indicate that to train student teachers to become productive thinkers is not an easy task, to say the least. The factors working against productive thinking and creativity are peer group pressure, authority figures, previous experiences, mismatch of teaching and learning styles, examinations and assessments -- these were in the Malaysian context, and it would be interesting to see what other factors would be in different settings and cultural contexts.

In his article on Models and the Knowledge Base of Second Language Teacher Education, Richard Day first presents the knowledge base for teacher education programme which consists of content knowledge, pedagogic knowledge, pedagogic content knowledge and support knowledge. Secondly he presents four models of language teacher education, i.e. the Apprentice-Expert Model, the Rationalist Model, the Case Studies Model and the Integrative Model. Each model has its own strengths and weaknesses.

He then shows us that the first three models do not satisfy the requirements of a good programme, that is they do not have the complete knowledge base mentioned above. Thus he advocates the fourth model, i.e. the Integrative Model, which he defines as 'a systematic approach to second language teacher education that ensures that the learner gains pedagogy, content, pedagogic content, and support knowledge through a variety of experiences and activities'. It is a model that is able to incorporate the strengths of the first three models, allowing the learner to a full exposure to the four types of knowledge in the knowledge base and

the variety of experiences and activities in the continuum, i.e. teaching, micro-teaching, observation, simulation, role-play, discussion, and studying (lecture, reading). But he hastens to warn us that 'merely exposing the learner to the four knowledge types through various activities and experiences does not ensure an integration of the four types of knowledge that form the knowledge base. In order to accomplish this, a reflective practice component must be included in the program.'

It seems that reflective thinking has now become the buzz-word for language teacher education.

"Oh, East is East, and West is West, and never the twain shall meet" (Rudyard Kipling). Not in Beijing. The twain did meet. That is the essence of Elizabeth Gatbonton's article on Preparing Teachers to Use a Meaning and Structure based Methodology. The place where the two met is at the Canada-China Language Centre in Beijing. The romance started with some disagreement, but ended with a happy compromise.

Gatbonton's paper describes the Canada-China Language Centre, the communicative methodology of language teaching used by Canadian and Chinese teachers of the centre, an outline of the areas of teacher expertise needed to carry out the communicative methodology, and the teacher training programme developed to help teachers attain the expertise they lack. The communicative methodology used at the Centre 'integrates the salient features of traditional Chinese teaching methodologies into a Western based communicative methodology'. It is unique in the sense that it proposes a progression of classroom activities from communication to formal instruction, not the other way around as is usually the case. The methodology assumes that adult learners will benefit from a teaching process that involves two distinct but highly integrated phases: Communication Phase and Consolidation Phase. In the communication phase the students engage in genuine communication and in the consolidation phase they step out of the communication process to examine the formal properties of the language used in greater detail.

For the teachers to be successful in implementing the communicative methodology, they should show strong competence in procedural knowledge, classroom management skills, intervention skills, pedagogical skills, and linguistic proficiency. In addition the teachers are also equipped with teacher training techniques such as workshops and demonstrations, skill teams, classroom observations and team teaching.

In her conclusion she claims that in implementing a communicative methodology or a combined methodology with large communicative component, training is most needed in developing classroom management skills and intervention skills.

Changes in education are practically a way of life in Singapore -- according to Maureen Khoo Mui Li, Amy Sobrielo and Maha Sripathy. But I think Singapore is not alone in this case as the world is fast changing, and so is education.

Their paper, entitled 'In Tandem: Preparing Singapore Teachers for a Changing Primary English Classroom', describes the training of new Primary English teachers to teach young children and equip them with specific methodology for managing the language programme in classrooms applying ideas from the Reading and English Acquisition Programme and the Active Communicative Teaching Programme. In addition, it also discusses the external factors, the theoretical framework and teacher-training theories that governed or influenced team decisions in developing and constantly shaping the curriculum, methods and assessment needed to train new teachers.

Generally speaking, teachers are overloaded with teaching and administrative work, so how can they ever undertake research for professional growth?

Geoff Brindley, in his paper entitled 'Becoming a Researcher: Teacher-Conducted Research and Professional Growth' discusses the relationship between research and professional development. His paper is based on a small-scale pilot study to investigate the perceptions of the research process of teachers who had newly become researchers, involving six EFL and ESL experienced teachers. The results are concerned with teachers' perceptions of the research process, that is how teachers identify researchable issues or questions, problems they experience in doing research, skills and knowledge they feel they need to acquire, kinds of support they value, what they see as the main benefits in conducting research, and how undertaking research contributes to their professional growth.

In his conclusion, Brindley is of the opinion that teachers can conduct research successfully if they are provided with the necessary support and the resources to carry it out.

Quality of teacher education is of paramount importance if we are to produce good teachers for the improvement of education in general. One of the ways to improve teacher education is to conduct evaluation on teacher education institutions and to accredit the good ones. Soenardi Djiwandono's paper on Program Accreditation Through Institutional Self-Study and Peer Validation is an example of such an evaluation. It describes a study for the accreditation of teacher education in Indonesia through institutional self-study and peer validation.

The main objective of the study was to establish foundations for a national accreditation process by creating a set of common standards by which institutions could be evaluated. In other words, it was conducted as an attempt to develop a mechanism by which the academic worth of an educational institution can be assessed and accredited. The ideal goal of the study is the second mission of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (USA) which is to 'encourage institutions to meet rigorous academic standards of excellence in professional education.' It is still a long way to go for a developing country like Indonesia, but at least a step has been taken in the long journey toward excellence in education.

Language shift and the teacher, that is the main problem encountered by teachers in the Philippines as described by Andrew Gonzalez. His paper, entitled 'From English to Filipino: Training Teachers for the Great Shift in Social Studies in the Philippines', describes the formidable problems teachers have to address in their task in teaching social studies, switching from English to Filipino, which, to many, is not their mother tongue. Another difficulty is the switch from an established language (English) to a not-so-established one (Filipino) which entails a considerable number of linguistic problems.

He further describes at length the problem of modernizing and intellectualizing Filipino and of creating registers for different content areas. In terms of teacher training, the process of re-training teachers to use Filipino in teaching social sciences is done by trial and error as so far there is no validated model based on theoretical framework to follow yet.

A seminar on this topic to exchange ideas and experience to help countries facing the same problem would be ideal.

Ian Malcolm's paper entitled 'Language Teacher Education for Social Cohesion' discusses social and linguistic diversity, language education and diversity, a fast-changing world, language education and public policy, and language teacher education for social cohesion.

In terms of language teacher education, he argues that teachers should be made aware of relationships between society, social policy and language education. He believes that teachers who are aware of the relationships will be able to improve social cohesion through language education. In order to enhance awareness of the relationships in the teachers, he suggests five areas in language teacher education: self-awareness, social awareness, student awareness, language awareness and pedagogical awareness.

Concerning pedagogical awareness, Ian Malcolm has this to say:

"There is a temptation in universities to value research above teaching, despite the fact that, to produce good researchers, universities must first engage in good teaching. Ernest Boyer, who is president of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, has argued for the reinstatement of teaching at university level as a scholarly enterprise."

I could not agree more.

Eugenius Sadtono

RELC
Singapore 1992

17

REFLECTIVE TEACHING IN TESOL TEACHER EDUCATION

Jack C Richards

Introduction

When we are involved in planning or implementing teacher education programs for language teachers, we have to consider a number of basic questions. How we answer these questions will influence both the content of our programs (what particular knowledge base informs our program) as well as the processes we employ (i.e. the activities and experiences we provide for teachers in the program). Some of these fundamental questions are:

- What is the pedagogical content of the program, i.e., what topics, theories, problems and issues will the program address?

- What theory or theories of teaching inform the program? For example, do we see teaching as a technology, a science, a craft, or an art?

- How are differences between novice teachers (those with little teaching experience) and expert teachers (those with a substantial experience of teaching) understood?

- How is the nature of teacher development viewed? How do we conceptualize the stages of development which teachers pass through as they move from being novices to becoming experts in teaching? In other words, what view of change underlies the program?

- What kinds of teacher education experiences best realize the view of teachers and of teaching, which underlies the program?

These questions can be answered in different ways, leading to very different kinds of emphases in teacher education programs. In the present paper I want to focus on how just two of these questions can be answered, and what the consequences are for teacher education practice. The questions I will focus on are:

- What theory of teaching underlies a teacher education program?

- What kinds of teacher education experiences best realize the view of teachers and of teaching, which underlies the program?

My plan is the following: First I will address the question concerning theories of teaching, and compare two different approaches to teaching - what I will call top-down versus bottom-up approaches. Then I will illustrate a bottom-up approach by discussing the notion of critically reflective teaching. I will go on to discuss activities which can be used to develop the capacities for critical reflection and critical inquiry.

Top-down Approaches to Teaching

I use this term to refer to theories of teaching which involve applying knowledge or theory to teaching: one starts with information or theory and then asks, how can this be applied to teaching? I will discuss two examples of this kind of top-down approach - one being applications of research to teaching, the other being the use of methods as a framework for teaching.

Theories of Teaching Based on Applications of Research

There is a long tradition in education of using learning theory as a basis for developing theories of teaching (Zahorik, 1986). These conceptions depend on principles developed from research on memory, transfer, motivation, and other factors believed to be important in learning. In general education, mastery learning and program learning are examples of scientifically based conceptions of teaching. In the field of second language instruction, audiolingualism, task-based language teaching, and learner training each represent applications of research in second language learning to the activity of language teaching.

Audiolingualism was derived from research on learning associated with behavioral psychology. Language learning was seen as a process of habit formation in which target language patterns were presented for memorization and learning through dialogs and drills. These were an application of principles revived from laboratory studies of animal learning, namely, rats.

Task-based language teaching is a more recent example of using learning research as a basis for teaching. Proponents of Task-based language teaching argue that second language acquisition research shows that successful language learning involves learners in negotiation of meaning. In the process of negotiating with a

speaker of the target language, the learner receives the kind of input needed to facilitate learning. Advocates of task-based language teaching propose that classroom tasks which involve negotiation of meaning should form the basis of the language teaching curriculum, and that tasks can be used to facilitate practice both of language forms and communicative functions (Prahbu, 1983).

The teaching referred to as learner training draws on research on the cognitive styles and learning strategies used by learners in carrying out different types of classroom tasks. Where audiolingualism and task-based teaching focus base their pedagogies on research-based understandings of the activity of teaching, this research focusses on learners and may involve observing them, asking them to introspect about their learning strategies, or probing their thinking and processes in other ways. The assumption is that once successful learning strategies are identified, these can be taught to other learners.

Each of these forms of teaching aims to put into practice findings and principles arrived at through research on learning, and makes the common assertion that teaching is, in effect, the mirror image of learning. A researcher and proponent of learner training, Willing [1981,1] makes the argument quite explicitly:

> Research shows that an effort to accommodate learning styles by choosing suitable teaching styles, methodologies and course organization can result in improved learner satisfaction and attainment.

Methods-based Approaches

Another top-down approach to teaching is to construct a theory of teaching through reason or rational thought. Systematic and principled thinking, rather than empirical investigation, is used to support these forms of classroom practice. Thus these conceptions of teaching tend not to draw support from classroom results which are empirically measured or compared, such as by showing pre- and post-test gains resulting from the use of a method. Instead they justify themselves through logical argumentation.

In second language instruction, we find examples of such theory-based conceptions in Communicative Language Teaching or the Silent Way, among others. Each of these forms of teaching is based on a set of carefully constructed assumptions which are logically extended from belief into classroom practice. Communicative Language Teaching, for example, arose as a reaction to grammar-based teaching realized in the teaching materials, syllabi, and methods prevalent in

the 1960s. The proponents of Communicative Language Teaching established it as a form of teaching through convincing critiques of the inadequacy of the linguistic and pedagogical theory underlying grammar-based teaching.

Often described as a 'principled approach', Communicative Language Teaching is an attempt to operationalize the theoretical concept of communicative competence and to apply it throughout second language instruction, from program to syllabus design, to teaching techniques.

The Silent Way, on the other hand, is derived not so much from advances in linguistic theory, like Communicative Language Teaching, but from a unique view of learning theory. Based on a theory of how learning takes place in adults, the classroom procedures in the Silent Way, which have become to many the hallmark of that form of teaching are reasoned from distinct principles.

Now why are these views of teaching seen as top-down, and so what? Both research-based and methods-based theories of teaching provide ready-made solutions, embedded in which are particular assumptions about the essential skills of teaching. Once the characteristics of learning are identified through research, teachers must aim to implement such principles in their own classes.

Methods-based conceptions require teachers first to understand the thinking which underlies the methodology and then to teach in such a way that the thinking is realized in classroom practice. With Communicative Language Teaching for example, lessons, syllabi, materials and teaching techniques are judged as more or less 'communicative'. Specifications of what constitutes 'communicative teaching' have been proposed, and teachers' performance can be assessed according to them. Likewise the view of teaching which forms the basis of the Silent Way can lead to prescriptions about what teachers should and should not do in the classroom.

Research-based and methods-based views of teaching reflect an essentially negative view of teachers - what I call the "teacher as idiot" philosophy. This implies that since the quality of teachers cannot be guaranteed, the contribution of the individual teacher should be minimized by designing teacher-proof methods. The hidden assumption is that teachers cannot be trusted to teach well. Left to their own devices, teachers will invariably make a mess of things. A method, however, because it imposes a uniform set of teaching roles, teaching styles, teaching strategies, and teaching techniques on the teacher, will not be affected by the variations that are found in individual teaching skill and teaching style in the real world.

The essential skills of teaching underlying these two approaches can be summarized in the following way:

Research based conceptions

- Understand the learning principles
- Develop tasks and activities based on the learning principles
- Monitor students' performance on tasks to see that desired performance on tasks is being achieved

Methods based conceptions

- Understand the theory and the principles
- Select syllabi, materials and tasks based on the theory/principles
- Monitor one's teaching to see that it conforms to the theory/principles

In applying such a paradigm to teacher education, the task is essentially one of training. Some of the techniques, used in training reflect a view of learning as "modeling": student teachers model the behaviours of master teachers or effective teachers or they model proven techniques of teaching. For example, micro-teaching offers trainers a chance to model new behaviours to teachers and then for teachers to practise and learn the new skills. Observation (either of teachers in the classroom or of model lessons on video) similarly allows student teachers to learn through modeling or imitation. Demonstration, simulation, and role play are also procedures that can be used to help teachers master new techniques, with the hope that they will later try them out in their own classrooms, incorporate them into their repertoire of teaching strategies and, hence, become better teachers.

Bottom-up Approaches to Teaching

Alternative approaches to conceptualizing the nature of teaching, and by implication, to the development of teacher education programs, start with internal rather than external views of teaching, and centre on the process of teaching itself. Bottom-up approaches use the teacher's actual teaching experiences as the basis for

constructing theories and for developing notions of effective teaching. And these theories are constructed by teachers themselves, rather than imposed on them by outsiders.

Bottom-up approaches start from the assumption that teachers, rather than methods, make a difference, that teachers are engaged in a complex process of planning, decision making, hypothesis testing, experimentation, and reflection, that these processes are often personal and situation-specific, and that they should form the focus of teacher education and teacher professional development (Richards, 1990). This approach involves teachers developing their own individual theories of teaching, exploring the nature of their own decision-making and classroom practices, and developing strategies for critical reflection and change. This is sometimes referred to as "teaching as improvisational performance", or an art-craft conception of teaching. Zahorick [1986,22] characterizes this conception in this way:

The essence of this view of good teaching is invention and personalization. A good teacher is a person who assesses the needs and posibilities of a situation and creates and uses practices that have promise for that situation.

Teachers are not encouraged to look for a general method of teaching or to master a prescribed set of teaching skills; rather they constantly try to discover things that work, discarding old practices and taking on board new ones through a process of decision-making, reflection, analysis and assessment.

The essential skills of teaching from this perspective are:

- Treat each teaching situation as unique
- Identify the particular characteristics of each situation
- Try out different teaching strategies to address those characteristics
- Reflect on and assess the efficacy of the strategies
- Develop an internally coherent, personal approach to the classroom

Implications for Teaching Education

One thing that contrasts bottom-up approaches to teacher education, from top-down, is a shift in emphasis from that of "training", to that of "education", or "development". Freeman (1992) argues that teacher education is essentially about teachers' conceptions of teaching, how they think about and carry out what they do in classrooms. Teacher education must examine how these conceptions are put together and how they can be influenced or developed.

There are a number of important implications of this point of view for how we approach the process of teacher education:

(i) Teachers are not viewed as entering the programme with deficiencies. Although there are obviously areas of content that teachers may not be familiar with and may wish to learn about, more emphasis is placed on what teachers know and do and on providing tools with which they can more fully explore their own beliefs, attitudes, and practices.

(ii) While teacher development acknowledges a theory of teaching as central to the process of planning and implementing a teacher education programme (Richards, 1987; Freeman, 1989), such a theoretical basis serves not as a source of doctrine which is used to shape and modify teachers, bringing them more closely to an ideal model, but serves as a starting point. Its role is to help teachers explore, define, and clarify their own classroom processes, and their individual theories of teaching and learning.

(iii) The programme does not start with the idea that teachers must change or discard current practices. As Freeman (1989:38) observes:

> "Change does not necessarily mean doing something differently; it can be an affirmation of current practice; the teacher is [perhaps] unaware of doing something that is effective."

The focus is, thus, more on expanding and deepening awareness.

(iv) The programme is discovery oriented and inquiry based. Instead of the programme being dependent upon external knowledge and expertise, external input serves as only one source of information. It is complemented by teacher input, and both interact to help teachers understand their own attitudes, values, knowledge base, and practices, and their influence on classroom life.

Reflection and inquiry are key components of this view of teacher development. The skill of self-inquiry and critical thinking is seen as central for continued professional growth, and is designed to help teachers move from a level where they may be guided largely by impulse, intuition, or routine, to a level where their actions are guided by reflection and critical thinking (Boud, Keogh and Walker, 1985).

Let us now examine these notions of reflection and critical inquiry in more detail, and examine some examples of teacher development activities, which can be used to develop a critically reflective approach to teaching.

What is Reflection?

Reflection or "critical reflection", refers to an activity or process in which an experience is recalled, considered, and evaluated, usually in relation to a broader purpose. It is a response to past experience and involves conscious recall and examination of the experience as a basis for evaluation and decision-making and as a source for planning and action (Bartlett, 1990).

How Does Reflection Take Place?

Many different approaches can be employed if one wishes to become a critically reflective teacher, including observation of oneself and others, team teaching, and exploring one's view of teaching through writing. Central to any approach used however is a three part process which involves:

Stage 1 *The event itself*

The starting point is an actual teaching episode, such as a lesson or other instructional event. While the focus of critical reflection is usually the teacher's own teaching, self-reflection can also be stimulated by observation of another person's teaching.

Stage 2 *Recollection of the event*

The next stage in reflective examination of an experience is an account of what happened, without explanation or evaluation. Several different procedures are available during the recollection phase, including written descriptions of an event, a video or audio recording of an event, or the use of check lists or coding systems to capture details of the event.

Stage 3 *Review and response to the event*

Following a focus on objective description of the event, the participant returns to the event and reviews it. The event is now processed at a deeper level, and questions are asked about the experience.

Let us examine approaches to critical reflection which reflect these processes.

Recording Lessons

For many aspects of teaching, audio or video recording of lessons can also provide a basis for reflection. At its simplest, a tape recorder is located in a place where it can capture the exchanges which take place during a lesson. With a microphone placed on the teacher's table, much of the teacher's language can be recorded as well as the exchanges of many of the students in the class. Pak (1985) recommends recording for a one or two week period and then randomly selecting a cassette for closer analysis. This recording could be used as the basis for an initial assessment. Where video facilities are available in a school, the teacher can request to have a lesson recorded, or with access to video equipment, students themselves can be assigned this responsibility. A 30 minute recording usually provides more than sufficient data for analysis. The goal is to capture as much of the interaction of the class as possible, both teacher to class and student to student. Once the initial novelty wears off, both students and teacher accept the presence of the technician with the camera, and the class proceeds with minimum disruption.

Written Accounts of Experiences

Another useful way of engaging in the reflective process is through the use of written accounts of experiences. Personal accounts of experiences through writing are common in other disciplines (Powell 1985) and their potential is increasingly being recognized in teacher education. A number of different approaches can be used.

Self-Reports

Self-reporting involves completing an inventory or check list in which the teacher indicates which teaching practices were used within a lesson or within a specified time period and how often they were employed (Pak, 1985). The inventory may be completed individually or in group sessions. The accuracy of self reports is found to increase when teachers focus on the teaching of specific skills in a particular classroom context and when the self-report instrument is carefully constructed to reflect a wide range of potential teaching practices and behaviors (Richards, 1990).

Self-reporting allows teachers to make a regular assessment of what they are doing in the classroom. They can check to see to what extent their assumptions about their own teaching are reflected in their actual teaching practices. For example a teacher could use self-reporting to find out the kinds of teaching activities being regularly used, whether all of the program's goals are being addressed, the degree to which personal goals for a class are being met, and the kinds of activities which seem to work well or not to work well.

Autobiographies

Abbs (1974, cited in Powell 1985) discusses the use of autobiographies in teacher preparation. These consist of small groups of around 12 students who meet for an hour each week for at least 10 weeks. During this period of time each student works at creating a written account of his or her educational experience and the weekly meetings are used to enable each person to read a passage from his or her autobiography so that it can be supported, commented upon by peers and the teacher (43).

Powell (1985) describes the use of reaction-sheets - sheets student teachers complete after a learning activity has been completed - in which they are encouraged "to stand back from what they had been doing and think about what it meant for their own learning and what it entailed for their work as teachers of others" (p. 46). I have used a similar technique in working with student teachers in a practicum. Students work in pairs with a co-operating teacher and take turns teaching. One serves as observer while the other teaches, and completes a reaction sheet during the lesson. The student who teaches also completes his or her own reaction sheet after the lesson. Then the two compare their reactions to the lesson.

Journal Writing

A procedure which is becoming more widely acknowledged as a valuable tool for developing critical reflection is the journal or diary. While procedures for diary keeping vary, the participant usually keeps a regular account of learning or teaching experiences, recording reflections on what he or she did as well as straightforward descriptions of events, which may be used as a basis for later reflection. The diary serves as a means for interaction between the writer, the facilitator, and sometimes other participants.

Here are some examples made by a student teacher from China, who was completing a practicum with the author. Near the beginning of her practice teaching experience she writes of one lesson in a conversation course:

> I like my pacing generally today, but I found that I did not give the students enough time to practise on one task before going on to another. I was also too nervous to function well. I made more grammatical mistakes than I should have. The students were very helpful and cooperative. Today's taks were a little too easy for most of the students. I should have prepared something more challenging.

A week later she writes:

> Today I found myself using a lot of teaching strategies that I used to use in China. I tended to explain too much, tended to make the class teacher-centered. Next time I teach, I will pay special attention to this. I must try to remember that these students come to class to practise speaking English - not to listen to me.

She soon begins to note an improvement in her performance, and at the same time records points for future action:

> I felt much more confident today. The way I presented the lesson was much more challenging for the students than last time. The pacing was better too. I felt that the students were all involved in the lesson. However I did not handle the group-work exercise well. My directions were not clear and some of the students did not understand the exercise. I didn't give them enough time to work on it either.

After a particularly frustrating lesson she writes:

> Sometimes I ask myself "Can anyone be a teacher?" "Does anyone know how to teach?" My answer is Yes and No. Sometimes I feel that teaching is the hardest job in the world. Many jobs require only your hands and brain, but teaching requires much more. Hands, brain, eyes and mouth. A good teacher is someone who knows how to handle these parts beautifully at the same time. Sometimes I think I am not cut out to be a teacher, because I do not possess what a good teacher has: logical thinking, well-organized talking, spontaneous response. Sometimes I decide that I will become a good teacher if I know how to learn, to observe, to practise. "Where there is a will, there is a way."

But a week later she observes:

> I felt so good about my teaching today. Everything went well. I could tell the students were on task. I found that my ability to give clear explanations has improved a lot. In today's class I did not find any cases where students could not understand my instructions as in my earlier classes.

And later she revises an earlier impression of her teaching:

> I used to think I was not cut out to be a teacher, because I don't possess some of the important characteristics that a good teacher should have ... However, after today's teaching, I began to think my earlier conclusion about my teaching was a little unfair. I didn't expect that today's lesson would turn out to be so successful. Both my students and I functioned very well.

For student teachers as well as experienced teachers, a diary account can hence serve as one source of information on what happens in the classroom and can assist in the interpretation of classroom events.

Collaborative Diary Keeping

A group of teachers may also collaborate in journal writing. A group of my colleagues recently explored the value of collaborative diary-keeping as a way of developing a critically reflective view of their teaching (Brock, Yu and Wong, 1992). Throughout a 10-week teaching term they kept diaries on their teaching, read each other's diaries, and discussed their teaching and diary keeping experiences on a weekly basis. They also recorded and later transcribed their group discussions and subsequently analyzed their diary entries, their written responses to each other's entries, and the transcripts of their discussions, in order to determine how these three interacted and what issues occurred most frequently. They reported that:

> "Collaborative diary-keeping brought several benefits to our development as second language teachers. It raised our awareness of classroom processes and prompted us to consider those processes more deeply than we may otherwise have. Collaborative diary-keeping also provided encouragement and support; it served as a source of teaching ideas and suggestions; and in some sense it gave us a way to observe one another's teaching from a "safe distance" ...
>
> By reading one another's diary entries, we were able to share our teaching experiences, and we often felt that we were learning as much from one another's entries as we were from our own. Reading and responding to the entries led us back to our own teaching to consider how and why we taught as we did."
>
> (Brock, Yu, and Wong, 1992 300)

These teachers observed however that

1 collaborative diary-keeping is more effective if the scope of issues considered is focussed more narrowly,

2 a large block of time is needed,

3 participants must be comfortable in sharing both pleasant and unpleasant experiences and be committed to gaining a clearer picture of their teaching and their classrooms.

Peer Observation

Peer observation can provide opportunities for teachers to view each others teaching in order to expose them to different teaching styles and to provide opportunities for critical reflection on their own teaching. In a peer observation project initiated in our own department, the following guidelines were developed (Richards and Lockhart, 1991).

1 Each participant would both observe and be observed

Teachers would work in pairs and take turns observing each others' classes.

2 Pre-observation orientation session

Prior to each observation, the two teachers would meet to discuss the nature of the class to be observed, the kind of material being taught, the teacher's approach to teaching, the kinds of students in the class, typical patterns of interaction and class participation, and any problems that might be expected. The teacher being observed would also assign the observer a goal for the observation and a task to accomplish. The task would involve collecting information about some aspect of the lesson, but would not include any evaluation of the lesson. Observation procedures or instruments to be used would be agreed upon during this session and a schedule for the observations arranged.

3 The observation

The observer would then visit his or her partner's class and complete the observation using the procedures that both partners had agreed on.

4 Post-observation

The two teachers would meet as soon as possible after the lesson. The observer would report on the information that had been collected and discuss it with the teacher.

The teachers identified a variety of different aspects of their lessons for their partners to observe and collect information on. These included organization of the lesson, teacher's time management, students' performance on tasks, time-on-task, teacher questions and student responses, student performance during pairwork, classroom interaction, class performance during a new teaching activity, and students' use of the first language or English during group work.

The teachers who participated in the project reported that they gained a number of insights about their own teaching from their colleague's observations and that they would like to use peer observation on a regular basis. They obtained new insights into aspects of their teaching. For example:

> "It provided more detailed information on student performance during specific aspects of the lesson than I could have gathered on my own."
>
> "It revealed unexpected information about interaction between students during a lesson."
>
> "I was able to get useful information on the group dynamics that occur during group work."

Some teachers identified aspects of their teaching that they would like to change as a result of the information their partner collected. For example:

> "It made me more aware of the limited range of teaching strategies that I have been using."
>
> "I need to give students more time to complete some of the activities I use."
>
> "I realized that I need to develop better time management strategies."

Longer term benefits to the department were also sighted:

> "It helped me develop a better working relationship with a colleague."
>
> "Some useful broader issues about teaching and the programme came up during the post-observation discussions."

What Happens When Teachers Engage in Activities Involving Critical Reflection and Inquiry?

If we believe critical reflection and inquiry is worth incorporating into teacher education programs, then we need to be able to say why it is good, and also develop a research agenda to validate our assumptions. The claims underlying many approaches to reflective teaching are that teachers working in this way are involved in articulating their own theories of language pedagogy, and that this can lead to more complex characteristics of their own teaching.

Others have suggested that it helps develop teachers with the following kinds of skills:

- They have better developed schemata about teaching, i.e. the abstract knowledge structure that summarizes information about many particular cases and the relationships between them.

- These schemata are more elaborate, more complex, more interconnected and more easily accessible than those used by teachers who do not engage in critical reflection.

- Their pedagogical reasoning skills are qualitatively different (the skills with which teachers can transform and utilize theoretical and content knowledge and organise and adapt it to learners' interests and abilities in teaching)

- Their improvizational performances in teaching are different.

- Their decision-making reflects a richer awareness of the variables within their own classroom, which can affect learning outcomes.

But how would one gather evidence to support these kinds of claims? Research on teaching within a technical/rational paradigm is deeply rooted in a process-product view of teaching and classrooms and looks for cause-effect relationships in teaching (Chaudron, 1988). Research on teaching from a bottom-up approach, however, focusses on the role of reflective inquiry in teachers' thinking and classroom practices and requires a very different research stance. Approaches of this kind typically involve observing teachers as they teach, and exploring with them by examining videos of their lessons, how instructional events evolved and why, and what influenced the decisions they made before, during or after teaching.

This approach was used in a study by Westerman (1991). She examined one dimension of teaching in detail - teacher decision making, and sought to clarify differences in the kind of decision-making employed by experts and novices. She found differences in the levels of reflection which expert and novice teachers engaged in during the three stages of decision-making - preactive, interactive, and post-active.

Although this study does not illustrate what happens to teachers before and after they have engaged in activities which involve critical reflection and inquiry, it does support some of the informal observations noted earlier with respect to what teachers felt they gained from activities such as videotaping lessons and peer observation. We could say that the nature of the teachers' improvisional performance has changed as a result of the greater awareness they have achieved of their own beliefs and practices. Their grasp of pedagogic reasoning skills has deepened. They are able to use their own experiences in the classroom as a basis for learning.

Freeman (1992) describes a study which was a longitudinal, qualitative examination of four teachers' conceptions of practice as they took part in a teacher education program. He used interviews, observations, and the teachers' written accounts of their experiences, as a source of data. He described the central role of critical reflection in the process by which these teachers constructed a conceptualization of their practice.

Conclusions

I would like to conclude by reiterating some observations that David Nunan and I made in the book we edited on second language teacher education (Richards and Nunan 1990), in which we identified a number of recurring themes in current work in SLTE:

- a movement away from a "training" perspective to an "education" perspective and recognition that effective teaching involves higher level cognitive processes, which cannot be taught directly

- the need for teachers and student teachers to adopt a research orientation to their own classrooms and their own teaching

- less emphasis on an inquiry-based and discovery-oriented approach to learning (bottom-up)

- a focus on devising experiences that require the student teacher to generate theories and hypotheses and to reflect critically on teaching

- less dependence on linguistics a[illegible]nguage theory as a source discipline for second language teacher education, and more of an attempt to integrate sound, educationally based approaches

- use of procedures that involve teachers in gathering and analyzing data about teaching

Reflective teaching is one approach in teacher education which links experience and reflection providing an impetus for the growth of understanding and awareness, the keys to a teacher's ongoing professional development.

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DEVELOPING PRODUCTIVE THINKING IN PRESERVICE STUDENT TEACHERS

Hyacinth Gaudart

Introduction

More than two decades ago, Torrance (1970) held that it was possible for thinking skills to be developed and that productive thinking was "susceptible to improvement through educational experiences." (p. 35)

In language teacher education, however, thinking skills have been taken for granted for too long as teacher educators concentrated on training perceived skills which they felt student teachers needed. But, as Richards (1990) says, there is more to teacher preparation than skills training. The development of teacher qualities requires activities that move beyond "training" and seek to develop the teacher's awareness and control of the principles underlying the effective planning, organisation, management and delivery of instruction. (Elliot, 1980, as cited in Richards, 1990).

One could, therefore, propose a plan for language teacher education which would have five major purposes to it. These purposes would be: the consolidation of positive attitudes; the development of thinking skills; the introduction of a firm knowledge base; the development of teaching skills; and the development of survival skills.

The scope of this paper does not allow me to go into all five purposes, and we will therefore only consider the development of productive thinking skills.

This paper will describe the learning experiences of three TESL teacher educators (one of whom is the researcher) as they attempt to encourage productive thinking in thirty-six student teachers. It will discuss their success and failures and the problems encountered both by the teacher educators as well as the student teachers as they become more productive thinkers.

I see the process of increasing productive thinking in teaching as the intentional inclusion of the introduction to, and development and maintenance of critical, creative and flexible thinking. This should apply not only to lesson planning, the execution of the lesson, and in problem solving, but beyond that to

other areas of community living and life itself. It is not sufficient then, for the teacher to be merely creative. His creativity needs to finds expression in his teaching and his whole approach to life.

In our current study we have found that most of our student teachers, at the time of entry into the teacher education programme, had never previously been encouraged to think. We cannot assume, therefore, that student teachers are naturally capable of independent or reflective thinking. We might need, first of all, to teach them how to think. A way to do that would be to use teaching methodology aimed at "learning to think and learning to learn", and also to consciously incorporate productive thinking into teacher education programmes.

Initial Attempts at Improving Productive Thinking

Our first attempts at developing productive thinking were targetted at Diploma in Education students who attend a nine-month teacher certification programme after completing their first degrees. We were guided by principles taken from the manual for teachers, Rewarding Creative Thinking developed by Torrance and his colleagues, as referred to in Torrance (1963: 31). These principles included:

1) treating questions with respect
2) treating imaginative, unusual ideas with respect
3) showing students that their ideas had value
4) giving opportunities for practice or experimentation without evaluation
5) encouraging and evaluating self-initiated learning
6) tying in evaluation with causes and consequences

To these principles the following principle, influenced by various scholars in reflective thinking, was added:

7) encouraging reflection in teaching.

But the first attempts met with limited success.

Firstly, there were very few questions from students. There were also very few imaginative or unusual ideas! As students were shown that their "ideas had value", they became in fact, more complacent, and even less likely to move towards experimentation, no matter how much they were encouraged to do so.

The teacher educators realised that, unlike very young children in schools, because student teachers came to us with ways of thinking which had been instilled into them over many years, it was difficult to attempt drastic changes in only a few months. The student teachers had had at least twenty-one years of life before us. What we were planning to change had to take place in nine months.

It was also very difficult to teach student teachers to reflect upon their teaching. They were, instead, very defensive. When probing questions, intended to set them thinking about their planning or teaching strategies, were asked, instead of answering the question, they would defend whatever they had done. The problem then was whether to insist that they answer the question and so push them into a corner, or "show respect for their ideas." In the end, time became the deciding factor and short cuts won the day. The supervisor took over the class to "show another way it could be done" and the student teachers were instructed to try new ideas.

The Current Study

Background

When the Faculty of Education, Universiti Malaya started the Bachelor of Education (TESL) programme three years ago, it was an opportunity to attempt to increase productive thinking in student teachers.

The programme, unlike the nine-month Dip.Ed programme, is a four-year degree programme. It has five "strands" to it. Three of the "strands" are being taught by lecturers of the Faculty of Education. The three "strands" are: Education courses, the TESL component (including Linguistics-related courses as well as methodology - 5 hrs a week X 7 semesters + one semester of teaching practice); and courses to do with their "Second Method" (Minor) (which they select from Art Education, Physical Education and Moral Education). Besides these courses, the students take courses in English Language proficiency from the Language Centre (8 hours a week X 6 semesters) and courses in English literature (4 hours a week X 7 semesters).

At the start of this academic year, using a glossary of common modes identified by Wallace (1991(a)) as a checklist, a wide variety of modes (twenty-five) were identified by sixty student teachers as applicable to the teaching techniques of their teacher educators. Much of the variety occurred, however, during the language proficiency and TESL components of the course. The Second

Method lecturers employ some of the techniques and so do the Education lecturers. The variety does not extend into the English Literature courses which are, apparently, mainly lecture-based.

Using research methods from action research (Hustler et al, 1986), and introspection (Faersch and Kasper, 1987) the study set out to see if it was possible to a) increase productive thinking through increasing creative, critical, flexible and reflective thinking in preservice student teachers and b) make them more assertive and less shy. These changes were attempted through a "treatment cycle" which incorporated a) sociodrama techniques, b) encouragement towards independent thinking, self-expression, and self-reliance, and c) heightened self-esteem.

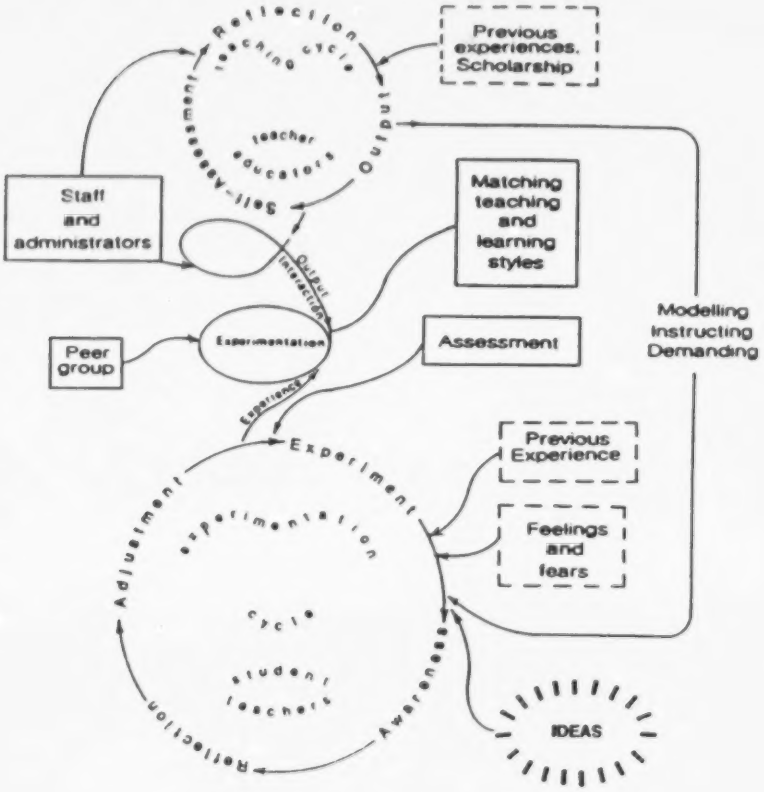
Sociodrama as a teaching technique was selected for various reasons: a) It allowed the student teachers to create something for which there had been no previous blueprint. It therefore allowed for creativity. b) It could be tied in easily with language teaching and the same techniques used in teacher education could then be used in the language classroom. c) It was easy to justify its use in TESL courses.

One way which was used to ascertain if the student teachers had indeed improved in productive thinking was to administer one of Torrance's tests of creativity, the circle task (Torrance and Ball: 1984). However, despite the use of the circle task, it needs to be mentioned that tests of creativity were not the sole instruments for assessing changes in productive thinking. Results were interpreted more from a qualitative than a quantitative point of view. Assessment of whether ideas in lesson planning were innovative, was based on the opinions of the teacher educators as well as the students themselves. "If we accept the premise that adult learners are self-directed, then learners are the ones who will know best if they have satisfactorily accomplished their objectives." (Patterson, 1986:104)

The "Treatment Cycle"

In the treatment cycle which we employ, there is a two-way input, interaction and experimentation between the teacher educator and the student teachers, as shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1 A treatment cycle for raising productive thinking in pre-service student teachers.



During the output from the teacher educator to the student teachers (which, for want of a better word, I refer to as the "teaching cycle"), a teacher educator draws from his own previous experiences as well as from theory, and provides the output or guidance to the student teacher. This can take two forms: as a direct output in the form of modelling, instructing and even demanding, and as an indirect approach in the form of techniques aimed at independent learning and thinking, self-awareness, creativity, self-esteem, and so on. Our experience with the thirty-six students indicates that the indirect approach on its own cannot be as effective as employing both approaches. On the other hand, the direct approach on its own is a sure way to trauma for both the teacher educator as well as the student teacher and is aimed at producing non-thinking automatons.

During the teaching cycle, the teacher educator needs to self-assess his own teaching, reflect on the processes he is using, and be prepared to constantly experiment with new methods and techniques of teaching. He will be, to a large extent dependent on the output from the student teachers, learning from them as much as they learn from him during the interactive process.

The student teacher, meanwhile, besides being involved in the interactive process with the teacher educator, should be free to experiment with his own ideas, become aware of his strengths and weaknesses, reflect on his teaching, adjust, experiment, be aware of what he is doing, reflect, and so on. Student teachers need to be encouraged to reflect upon their teaching and adjust their practices for what works for them and their learners.

It is also at this stage that students are encouraged towards classroom-based research. It could be action research (Hustler et al, 1986), or some kind of qualitative study, or combinations of different types of research including introspection (Faerch and Kasper, 1987).

The experimentation cycle should start happening at least during micro-teaching, or even before then. When it is introduced would depend on the readiness of each student teacher, as long as it is not introduced after actual classroom teaching takes place, or at the end of the course. The student teacher will not be able to try out new ideas if he is about to leave the programme.

General Profile of the Students

There are 168 students involved in the study at present. Data from tests given to all 168 students will be taken into account when discussing originality of ideas among the students. However, it will not be possible in the scope of this paper to discuss all 168 subjects. This paper will therefore concentrate on the overall development of thirty-six students, and draw specific examples from seven case studies. The thirty-six students have just finished their third year of the B.Ed. programme. They will be going out on teaching practice in July 1992.

The data have been obtained from my observations and those of students and other staff members, interviews with staff and students, as well as from introspection regarding my own interaction with the students in question. I have taught eight of the TESL courses.

When the students first entered the programme, there were two distinct groups in the class. One group had been taken in from the STPM classes ('A' levels, Form 6, Grade 13), another group had come from the matriculation classes at the university itself. The groups unfortunately were also divided along ethnic lines - Malay students from the matriculation courses; non-Malays and Sarawak Pribumi students from the STPM classes. While three of the STPM students were cheeky and enjoyed back-chat, none of the matriculation students were that way. Most of the class were subdued and ready to absorb whatever was conveyed to them.

The Process

There are seven TESL teacher educators who have been in contact with the thirty-six subjects these last three years. However, only three have been involved consistently with the target group. These three teacher educators (including me) are the teacher educators referred to in the following sections. They are responsible for tutoring groups of between seven to ten student teachers.

In dealing with the student teachers, the TESL teacher educators first of all try to create a close relationship between themselves and the student teachers. Torrance (1970) points out that to be able to empathise and recognise the full potential of a learner, the teacher must genuinely get to know him. This is what the teacher educators attempt to do.

It is, however, easier with some student teachers than with others. Barriers need to come down and this can be done in different ways. One teacher educator sits on the floor with the students, talking to them at the lunch hour. Another takes them out to breakfast or lunch to discuss their problems. Yet another, who lives in one of the residential colleges, encourages them to visit and chat. The role of the teacher educator at this stage is that of a consultant and friend.

All three teacher educators consciously attempt to encourage each student teacher to develop his or her own teaching ideas. When an idea does not turn out as the student teacher planned it, the teacher educator praises the student teacher nevertheless for her courage in attempting something new and challenging. When the student teacher reflects on her lesson and, recognising weaknesses, tries a different technique, no matter whether the technique succeeds or fails, the student teacher is praised again. The student teacher's effort at learning is therefore seen to be just as important as the conduct of the lesson itself.

The teacher educators allow student teachers to approach them at any time of the working day, and informally schedule conference and social periods. For example, my students are taken out for an occasional meal or "ice-kacang". Often fruit, cake or sandwiches are brought in during classes, and even during examinations.

The thirty-six students have been encouraged to practise different thinking skills since their first semester. The focus on the particular thinking skill often depended on what was being taught. For example, linguistic analysis was used to encourage analytical and constructive thinking. English across the curriculum, a general knowledge course, has as its major aim, the development of thinking skills and was therefore used to develop critical, independent, logical, liberal, creative and constructive thinking, and so on. The majority of students were eager to learn and this made it very easy for the teacher educators to channel student efforts into self-learning activities.

But in such a class climate, it is also very easy to be carried away by the enthusiasm of the majority. Because those who preferred an independent learning style and problem solving were more voluble, the more dependent learners were neglected. For example, although I was aware that there were some who were not as capable of problem solving as the others, I failed to realise that there was a widening gap growing in the class between those who were independent thinkers and those who were more used to a teacher-centred classroom. Because the teacher educators, including me, were swept along by the enthusiasm of those who wanted

to learn through problem-solving and independent study, twenty students who were still floundering, floundered even more and were only capable of mediocre work.

The following semester, therefore, pains were taken to ensure that those who were "reluctant thinkers" be encouraged to have and express opinions of their own. The independent thinkers continued to progress rapidly, and dominated the class. But gradually, except for four students, others became more willing to express their own opinions.

But, as the number of independent thinkers rose, so too did problems of socialisation which had been simmering for some time. While the students did well in class, their life on campus was not so easy. The student teachers found themselves in confrontation with other students in the university and also with staff members and administrators who considered them "cocky". Torrance (1963: 11) said that "To be creative is to be unpredictable, and the unpredictable always makes us uneasy. ... The uneasiness and uncertainty of the administrator may find expression in feelings and even actions of hostility toward the creative teacher." This has definitely been proved true for the TESL students.

First there was rejection by students in other courses on campus. The TESL students responded by becoming a close-knit group. They even developed their own argot or secret language in retaliation against the other students. Over the last three years, complaints by other students have been lodged against the B.Ed. TESL students of all three years, protesting about their behaviour, their "rudeness", their social preferences and "liberal" attitudes.

In the third semester, for example, an interesting phenomenon occurred which involved the pioneer group. They had a lecturer who did not tolerate creativity or independent thinking and constantly put the students down in class.

The students and the lecturer were in direct confrontation. Twenty students, who were more assertive, continued to argue with the lecturer, or ignored her and "switched off", using the time to do other assignments. Others sat there and seethed. Twelve others went back to their previous behaviour of non-independence, suppression of ideas, and submission to and dependence on the lecturer. There was a third group (of eight) who really did not mind the behaviour of the lecturer at all. They felt she was only trying to do her job.

But the overall climate in the class was non-responsive. The lecturer was constantly met by frozen silence and blank stares. She got annoyed, yelled at the students, they froze more, and the cycle went on. It was unfortunate for the staff member that the eight students who thought she was only doing her job were also the most timid and unresponsive in the class, so she got little support.

The following semester, two types of behaviour were noted in the class. With TESL lecturers they had known before, the group was still prepared to air their opinions. When faced with a new lecturer, however, they were cautious and unwilling to participate in learning tasks.

The positive outcome of the confrontations was that by the end of the second year, ethnic barriers had broken down completely as the student teachers saw themselves allied in "them" and "us" situations.

At the start of the 1991/92 academic year, (the third year for the pioneer group), we began the year prepared to work with enthusiastic, lively, intelligent student teachers as the first practical sessions of student teaching began. When we started simulated and micro-teaching sessions, however, we found that, in our opinion, their micro-teaching lessons were, on the whole, mediocre. The promise they had held out in more theoretical courses was not being realised. Despite having been exposed to different teaching techniques in the previous two years, they were unable to make the transfer of techniques on their own.

Teacher educators adopted strategies to try and improve their teaching - strategies reminiscent of the reflective approach (Wallace, 1991). However, the teacher educators found that while the better students could be easily prompted into being reflective, it was more difficult with the weaker students. (Here "weaker" students means those who do not perform as effectively during micro-teaching. They appear to be less creative, are less able to put their ideas across and are unable to plan and sequence a lesson). All the teacher educators have had to be more "instructive" with the weaker students.

At first it was thought that there was a correlation between proficiency in English and students who were "weak" in the presentation of their lessons during micro-teaching. But, although this was true of many of the "weak" students, there have been exceptions. Among the thirty-six, there are students with native-like ability in English who could have done better in practical teaching sessions. We could not therefore, dismiss the "weak" students as simply being less proficient in English. Other reasons had to be found.

In the fifth week of the first semester, one of Torrance's tests of creativity, the "Circle Task" (Torrance and Ball, 1984), was given to all 168 students. During this task, students were given 30 circles. The instructions asked students to make as many objects as possible by adding lines inside or outside the circle, or both inside and outside.

Because the subjects are student teachers, I felt that a task which reflected creativity in lesson planning might also be interesting. The students were therefore also asked for their reactions if they were required to use a stone or a bottle cap as a teaching aid in an ESL class.

From the alternatives offered, no student felt that the task was impossible. Four students ticked off "Panic"; twenty students ticked off "Think hard"; and eight students ticked off "Immediately have ideas you can use." Four students chose not to hand in their responses.

In the second semester, all students had to take the elective: "Using Drama Techniques for Teaching English as a Second Language" and also "Cocurricular activities for TESL" which had a heavy theatre component.

At the start of the semester, the thirty-six students were given fifteen minutes to list down as many ideas as they could as to how they would use a stone or a bottle cap as a teaching aid. The number of ideas listed by the students ranged from two ideas (3 students) to nine ideas (1 student).

Students were also asked to write their reactions to how they thought they would enjoy the drama course. Only nine students said they were looking forward to the course. The others all expressed reluctance, nervousness and/or anxiety. Only twelve students would have chosen to do the course if it had not been made compulsory. Below are some of their comments:

A: I am rather scared and terrified. To tell you the truth, I nearly come [sic] to tears yesterday.

B: My first reaction was, "My God! What are the Faculty people trying to do to us?"

C: I'm a little bit nervous of the creativity part ... what if I don't have ideas?

The course in using drama techniques to teach English was conducted in an experiential manner, during which the student teachers acted as language learners of different levels. They then experienced activities stemming from four types of drama techniques: games, role-playing, mime and simulation. They were then encouraged to create their own activities. Their presentations were lively, exciting and creative.

In the second test, given at the end of the second semester, despite being given only half the time they had had during the first test, most students scored higher in fluency, and creativity in the circle task and with the use of a stone or bottle cap as a teaching aid. The highest score for creativity was 11 unusual ideas. Four students had the same number of types of objects in the second test as in the first test, giving them the same score for flexibility in both tests. Four students had lower scores, but, as has been pointed out, had been given half the time.

For using a stone or bottle cap as a teaching aid, in five minutes (as compared with fifteen minutes given previously), the least number of ideas was four (1 student) and the most number of ideas was 10+ ('+' indicating that they had more ideas but could not write them down fast enough in five minutes).

When asked to comment on their feelings at the end of the course, there were positive comments from all students. Here are some of the comments from those who had entered the course with negative feelings:

A: "I now feel more open towards friends."

B: "The classes made me lose my inhibitions and at the end of it I have a 'The heck with what others think! I'm having FUN!' attitude."

C: "I feel 'released'."

D: "I enjoyed the lessons. We never knew what we were going to face next! Good things never last!"

Every student expressed a loss of nervousness and inhibition and wanted the course to continue. Pleasure and satisfaction was expressed by everyone. There was very little absenteeism although one student came about ten to fifteen minutes late on three occasions.

The personality of many of the students and their attitude to life has also changed. They are much more open in their thinking and are less shy. They enjoy verbal sparring with lecturers, something unheard of before, and no longer feel afraid of speaking before an audience.

One cannot attribute the changes in personality and thinking to just one or two courses. However the student feedback indicates that they consider the two drama courses significant to their personal development and the TESL methods courses significant to their professional development.

Factors Working Against Creativity

However, any teacher educator who attempts to develop productive thinking in student teachers needs to be aware of forces contending against the process. In our study, we found seven major forces working against the development of productive thinking.

Peer Group

While they are with the TESL lecturers, student teachers are being urged to be more innovative, experimental and reflective. Once they have to interact with other students on campus, they have to pretend not to be independent thinkers, and pretend to go along with what the majority of students think and feel.

Authority Figures

Frustration also comes their way from authority figures on campus. These include administrators and lecturers.

Questioning techniques, for example, reflect, in the minds of the students, what lecturers really expect of them. Here is one example given to me by a student:

A lecturer of a course in English Literature, when interpreting a line of poetry says: "This means ...(explanation) ... " She then asks the students, "What does this mean?" The students have interpreted such a questioning strategy to mean, "Tell me what I just told you."

Previous Experiences

Students say that they have been asked to try out new ideas, but when they do, they are told that the ideas are too "way out". At other times, some have been told that their ideas are not practical. As a result, students have been taught that the new ideas should conform to what the lecturer has in mind.

The result is that, instead of trying out innovative ideas, they try to mind-read what is in the mind of the lecturer, giving the lecturer what they think the lecturer wants to read or see.

Mismatch of Teaching and Learning Styles

All too often the student is expected to conform to the teacher educator's teaching style. For example, I expect student teachers to be independent, creative and reflective thinkers. If they prefer me to tell them what to do, my reaction to them is less positive than it is towards independent thinkers.

The opposite is also true. There would be supervisors in other subjects who would demand conformity. This would mean that the students who are creative and independent thinkers would be the ones to receive low grades for non-conformity.

And this takes us to the next factor, examinations and assessment.

Examinations and Assessment

Assessment puts constraints on both the mentor and the mentee. From being a confidante, the mentor has to be the assessor.

Just the examinations themselves are a severe strain on the students. Ala (not her real name) says she feels the pressure because she has done well the last two years and feels she needs to continue to do well. A few weeks before the examinations, she started trying to read the minds of lecturers to try and second guess them.

And that takes us to the final major obstacle common to many students, and tied in with assessments and examinations - feelings and fears.

Feelings and Fears

Perhaps because of all the factors above, certain emotions and fears within each student teacher act against his achieving his full potential. Four types of feelings are of interest in this section: fear of failure, ambition, jealousy and anger.

One example of students' fears, for example, can be illustrated through two students, Doi and Eli (not their real names). Doi and Eli have native-like proficiency, scored high on the tests of creativity and are capable of lateral thinking. But when it comes to lesson planning, although they do have ideas of their own, at first, what they actually offered learners came from books. During discussions it was revealed that they were both afraid to experiment. They were afraid of failure. Questions to prompt them into seeing the mediocrity of their presentations revealed that they, too, considered their lessons mediocre! They could critically assess (positively and negatively) their own and others' lessons and even offer very good suggestions for improvement. Yet, when they planned their next lesson, they once again reverted to the mediocre.

Doi is also interesting in that lessons which were planned in simulated teaching to peers were much more experimental than lessons which involved real learners. It appeared to me as if, once confronted with real learners, he reverted to being cautious, afraid to make mistakes. He disagreed.

The following is part of our conversation:

Doi: I know you're assessing me. That's why. It's not the students. They're okay.
Me: Well, I'm afraid the difference between being an average teacher and being an inspiring teacher is going to depend on your willingness to experiment and try out new ideas.
Doi: What if the lesson is a flop?
Me: Does it matter if it is?
Doi: I don't know. Does it?
Me: Why should it fail?
Doi: I don't know how the students are going to react.
Me: You're flexible. You'll think of something. ... And anyway, even if it does fail, the important thing is for you to learn from it.
Doi: Can I change my lesson plan if I feel it's not working?
Me: Sure.
Doi: You see! That's you! Some others may not be so easy.

It was only then that I realised that, while at the back of my mind I was aware of competing forces in the students' lives, I had not really confronted the problem of teaching students to deal with those forces. As the students did micro-teaching in two different subjects, they were being exposed to different demands. Another student, Bet (not her real name) explained that in her second method, two teacher educators were working with them. One liked creativity, the other frowned on it. They had to plan work to suit the lecturers in question.

This meant therefore, that they were not really teaching according to the force of their convictions but according to what the lecturer looked for. Since I wanted to see evidence of thinking, they gave it to me. With someone else who wanted to see the teacher use proven techniques, they tried to perform accordingly.

The following is an extract of a conversation with two students, Bet and Cay:

Having been praised for a particularly innovative shared lesson one day, Bet said, "It's so hard being creative."

Cay: "Yeah."

Me: "Because you have to think and generate ideas?"

Cay: "That's the easy part."

Bet: "The hard part is dealing with those who don't want you to be creative."

It becomes clear that for originality to occur, much would depend on the personality and commitment of teacher educators as well as on their knowledge and teaching styles. The teaching of productive thinking calls for an unfamiliar sort of role for some teacher educators. There are those, for example, who have long been in a system where roles between students and lecturers have been well-defined. They see themselves as authority figures and see any attempt to modify the roles as a rebellion which needs to be squashed as early as possible.

Conclusion

Should student teachers then be taught not only to think but also to reconcile their roles with the expectations of teacher educators? Or should teacher educators be made more aware of differences in student teachers?

With the knowledge explosion facing us, it is no longer sufficient for teacher educators to "pass on knowledge". Instead every student teacher needs to be taught how to learn and should want to continue learning not just from books, but from all media, from other teachers, from his students, from parents, from the world itself, and lastly, and possibly most importantly, from himself. He needs to be taught the skills of self-examination and experimentation. He must be assured that it is all right to make mistakes for it is a way he can learn. He must feel that he has access to knowledge and that he must chase it because it will not chase him. He must, in other words, be taught to take the responsibility of learning into his own hands, to be an independent learner, while also learning how to survive in the real world.

Torrance (1970) pointed out that creative people are annoying beings. They don't conform. They are "different". They are not "disciplined" and attempts to discipline them fail. When you have undergraduates in a particular programme moving in such a direction, administrators who are bound by rules and regulations are understandably less likely to tolerate non-conformists. As Strasheim, (1971) says, we can liberate and loose the teacher's creative powers, but we shall find neither absolutes nor comfort in the process.

The pain teacher educators share with the creative students sometimes raises the question as to whether all these attempts at developing thinking skills are worth the trouble. Should we simply let the students be? Would they not be happier if they did not think for themselves? Are we, in fact, creating misfits in society?

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MODELS AND THE KNOWLEDGE BASE OF SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION

Richard R Day

Introduction

Although teacher education programs have been in existence for a long time, second language teacher education is a relatively recent development. Traditionally, second or foreign language teachers were either native speakers of the target language or had some recognized expertise in the language. To the extent that instructors from either of these two sources had degree work or undertaken other educational programs, it was generally in the literature and culture of the target language. Indeed, simply being a native speaker was often the only criterion.

However, in the last thirty year, there has been an explosion in the teaching and learning of second languages, both in the actual teaching and in the education of second language teachers. This has been particularly rapid in the field of English as a second/foreign language (ESL), which is the focus of this paper.

In examining pre-service ESL teacher education programs, we can recognize two major aspects. The first is the knowledge base or the information that we believe our students must know. The second aspect is the way or ways in which that knowledge is delivered to our students. I refer to the possible ways as models or approaches. The purpose of this paper is to examine the intersection of the knowledge base with four models. It is necessary to understand how these two aspects of second language pre-service teacher education come together. Without this understanding, we face the danger of randomly offering courses and other instructional activities for accidental reasons. An unstructured approach could result in a haphazard educational experience for our students.

I begin by presenting an overview of the four categories of knowledge that I claim form the knowledge base of such programs:

1. Content knowledge
2. Pedagogic knowledge
3. Pedagogic content knowledge
4. Support knowledge

This is followed by a discussion of four models or approaches to second language teacher education. The four models are discussed in the following order:

1. The apprentice-expert model
2. The rationalist model
3. The case studies model
4. The integrative model

As each approach is presented, I discuss the ways in which each interacts with the four types of knowledge. The paper concludes with suggestions for future directions in pre-service second language teacher education programs.

Before examining the knowledge base, it is helpful to identify a professional knowledge source continuum. As can be seen in Figure 1, a professional knowledge source continuum consists of a variety of experiences and activities by which, or as a result of which, the learner develops knowledge of the profession. At one end of the continuum are those experiences that allow the learner to develop knowledge as a result of teaching. Schon (1983) refers to this as "knowledge-in-action." At the other end, the sources of knowledge are very different, and generally consist of lectures and readings. In between these two ends is a variety of activities that may, depending on their orientation, allow the learner to develop knowledge closer to one end or the other. For example, micro-teaching allows the learner to develop knowledge about teaching that is close to, but not the same as, teaching in an actual classroom with real students. Observing a second language classroom also is a source of knowledge about teaching, but is rather different from reading about teaching or actually teaching.

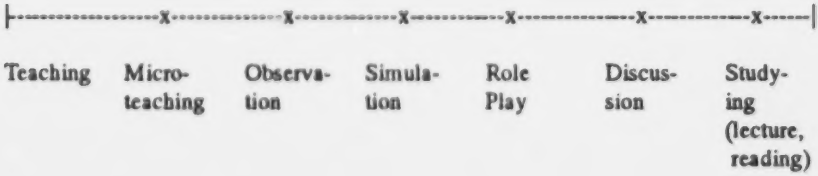

Figure 1. Professional Knowledge Source Continuum

It is clear that the source of the knowledge allows the learner to develop a different type of knowledge about teaching. The knowledge that develops from classroom teaching may be termed experiential knowledge: knowledge developed from sources at the other end of the continuum can be thought of as acquired or

received knowledge. (See Wallace (1991:12-13) for a similar, but different, discussion of this topic.) This notion of a professional knowledge source continuum is important as it relates to both the knowledge base and the knowledge emphasized in a particular approach to or model of language teacher education, as is demonstrated below.

The Knowledge Base of Second Language Teacher Education

Day and Conklin (1992) claim that the knowledge base of second language teacher education consists of four types of knowledge:

1. Content knowledge: knowledge of the subject matter (what ESL/EFL teachers teach); e.g., English language (as represented by courses in syntax, semantics, phonology and pragmatics) and literary and cultural aspects of the English language

2. Pedagogic knowledge: knowledge of generic teaching strategies, beliefs and practices, regardless of the focus of the subject matter (how we teach); e.g., classroom management, motivation, decision making

3. Pedagogic content knowledge: the specialized knowledge of how to represent content knowledge in diverse ways that students can understand; the knowledge of how students come to understand the subject matter, what difficulties they are likely to encounter when learning it, what misconceptions interfere with learning, and how to overcome these problems (how we teach ESL/EFL in general; or how we teach ESL/EFL reading or writing in particular, for example); e.g., teaching ESL/EFL skills (reading, writing), teaching English grammar, TESOL materials evaluation and development, ESL/EFL testing, TESOL program and curriculum evaluation and development, TESOL methods

4. Support knowledge: the knowledge of the various disciplines that inform our approach to the teaching and learning of English; e.g., psycholinguistics, linguistics, second language acquisition, sociolinguistics, research methods

Day and Conklin (1992) asked 57 ESL teacher education programs at the master's degree level in the United States to categorize their required and elective courses according to these four types of knowledge. They found that there was no consensus among the respondents in the emphasis of the four types of knowledge.

Models of Second Language Teacher Education Programs

In this paper, the term model (or approach) is meant to characterize the overall way in which a pre-service program presents or delivers knowledge to its learners. In this sense, the term is used rather broadly, and should not be taken to refer to the focus of an individual course that may be offered by a program.

Apprentice-Expert Model

The apprentice-expert model is the oldest form of professional education and is still used today, albeit rather limitedly. In its most basic form, the apprentice-expert model consists of the trainee or beginner working closely with the expert teacher. Knowledge is acquired as a result of observation, instruction, and practice.

In current ESL teacher education, the apprentice-expert model is not widely-used, if indeed it is used at all as an overall approach to convey knowledge within a program. Its conceptual basis, however, is widely utilized in practicum courses in which students work with classroom teachers, often called cooperating teachers. Its use in one course in a program of ESL teacher education cannot be regarded as a model for an entire program.

The apprentice-expert model has been criticized as being a static approach to a dynamic profession, a profession that has changed radically over the past decade and which will most likely continue to change and develop well into the twenty-first century (e.g., Wallace 1991:6-7). While there is a degree of truth in this criticism, I believe the apprentice-expert model has a great deal to offer the student, particularly if the teacher with whom the student works is indeed an expert teacher. The ideal cooperating teacher is an expert in all senses of the term--one who, in addition to being experienced, is effective, skilled, up-to-date, and so on. The opportunity for students to work with such teachers can be an unparalleled experience. Being an expert teacher obviously does not imply a static approach to teaching.

In examining the apprentice-expert approach to determine which of the four categories of knowledge it treats, it is obvious that it helps the learner to develop pedagogic, content, and pedagogic content knowledge. However, it is doubtful if support knowledge can be dealt with adequately through the apprentice-expert model.

The apprentice-expert approach to second language teacher education allows the learner to develop experiential knowledge, since the primary responsibilities of the learner are in the classroom. In addition, the learner acquires knowledge through observation of and discussion with the cooperating teacher.

The Rationalist Model

The rationalist model involves the teaching of scientific knowledge to students who, in turn, are expected to apply this knowledge in their teaching. Ur (1992:56) refers to this approach as the "rationalist learn-the-theory-and-then-apply-it model." As Wallace notes, the rationalist model, in his terms the applied science model, is "the traditional and probably still the most prevalent model underlying most training or education programs for the professions..." (1991:8). Its basic assumption is that teaching is a science and as such can be examined rationally and objectively. The results of such rational and objective examinations are conveyed to the students by experts in the field. Students are said to be educated when they have been exposed to the scientific knowledge which the experts believe are the fundamental elements of a given profession.

An examination of the courses offered by a random sample of M.A. degree programs in ESL in American universities reveals that the rationalist model predominates. In spite of its wide-spread usage, it has some shortcomings. Among the most serious problems is leaving students to apply on their own the scientific knowledge they have learned to teaching. Lasley (1989:i) observes, "Too many of us as teacher educators concern ourselves singularly with communicating content rather than attending to how prospective teachers transform that content into pedagogical practice."

Another shortcoming concerns the separation of research and practice. Wallace (1991:10-11) discusses this separation, noting that those who do research and those who teach are different people. Under this model, a rather unusual situation has developed. Those who are engaged in teacher education are not the ones who actually teach English. These persons, often located in universities, are involved in creating and teaching the knowledge base but they have relatively little direct contact with the practice of teaching English. Perhaps as a result of both the location-- universities--and the task--the creation and teaching of a knowledge base--a status distinction has evolved.

Another shortcoming is the rationalist model's failure to address adequately many of the important issues in teaching English. There has been relatively little research that directly concerns the teaching and learning of English in the classroom. For example, task-based learning has recently become one of our buzz words. But I have yet to see significant research evidence to support the claims that its backers make in its behalf. Another example is the Natural Approach, whose empirical foundation is nonexistent.

Ur (1992:57-58) claims that trainees who take courses based on the rationalist model feel that such courses do not help them develop professionally, that the theoretical studies are of no help.

In terms of the four types of knowledge, the rationalist approach is an excellent source of content and support knowledge, but of very limited value, if at all, for pedagogic and pedagogic content knowledge. It is only able to deal with pedagogic knowledge in a limited fashion. In fact, it is questionable if any pedagogic knowledge can be learned merely by studying the results of pedagogic research. A convincing case can be made that students must have hands-on experience in order to learn how to become teachers. I believe that the most comprehensive way of learning about teaching is through the act of teaching itself.

It might be argued that the rationalist model is a fruitful approach to learning about pedagogic content knowledge, as it helps the student to understand theoretical aspects. But I believe that a theoretical understanding of pedagogic content knowledge is only partial understanding. The students must be given opportunities to use their understanding in the ESL/EFL classroom so as to integrate theory and practice. Without such opportunities, students are denied an important aspect of their education.

In contrast to the apprentice-expert model, in which the student develops experiential knowledge, the rationalist approach helps the learner gain received knowledge through various lectures, readings, discussions, and so on. However, I claim this approach has nothing to offer the learner in terms of classroom experience.

The Case Studies Model

The case studies model of professional education involves the discussion and analysis of actual case histories in the classroom. The objectives of this model include the generalization of particular behaviors into broader understandings of the

discipline. The case studies model is used in most of the leading law and business schools in the United States, and is being implemented in an increasing number of medical schools.

In contrast, the case studies model has not been as widely embraced in teacher education programs. Merseth (1991) reviews the early history of the use of case studies in teacher education and posits two reasons why the model was not adapted by teacher education at Harvard University as it had been in both law and business: conceptual clarity about its purpose; and the lack of administrative and financial support for the writing of cases by faculty.

Indeed, the critical aspect of the case studies approach is the nature of the cases themselves. A story of a classroom event or experience is not necessarily a case. Shulman (1991:251) claims that a case has a beginning, a middle, and an end, and is "situated in an event or series of events that unfold over time," with a plot "that is problem-focused with some dramatic tension that must be relieved." Furthermore, a compelling case is "embedded with many problems that can be framed and analyzed from various perspectives." If the case is written by a teacher, then it should include the teacher's thoughts and feelings of the account. Shulman maintains that teacher-written cases include reflective observations that explore what the authors learned.

Given that central importance of well-written cases in this method of professional education, it is not surprising that this method has not been adopted in second language teacher education. Our profession is only beginning to gain the experience and perspective necessary to develop a compelling case literature. As Shulman (1991:251) points out, identifying a narrative as a case makes a theoretical claim that it is a "case of something or an instance of a larger class of experiences." Our profession is only developing its paradigm. As we move further along this process, it is reasonable to anticipate the development of a case literature and the incorporation of a case studies approach into second language teacher education.

The case studies approach is an appropriate way to expose students to content knowledge, but is rather limited in its treatment of pedagogic, pedagogic content and support knowledge. Like the rationalist model, the case studies model can only treat pedagogic and pedagogic content knowledge in a limited fashion. Students studying cases should be able to gain some valuable insights into both pedagogic and pedagogic content knowledge, particularly in such areas as teacher decision-making, planning and reviewing a lesson, and various activities and practices. However, let me repeat my belief that the best way to learn about teaching is through the experience of teaching.

Similar to the rationalist model, the case studies model treats received knowledge. Students acquire knowledge through the study of cases, and not through the actual practice of teaching.

Before turning to the fourth approach, let us summarize the discussion at this point. Figure 2 illustrates the interaction of the four types of knowledge that form the knowledge base and the three approaches to second language teacher education. I claim that none of these three approaches by itself provides an adequate treatment of the knowledge base.

	Models		
Knowledge	Apprentice-Expert	Rationalist	Case Studies
Pedagogic	yes	limited, if at all	limited
Content	yes	yes	yes
Pedagogic Content	yes	limited	limited
Support	no	yes	limited

Figure 2. The Interaction of Models and Knowledge

The Integrative Model

It should be clear from the preceding discussion of the three models that relying exclusively on any one of them would result in a failure to deal adequately with the knowledge base. Further, none of the three alone is able to cover the variety of experiences and activities illustrated by the professional knowledge source continuum (see Figure 1). Thus what is needed is an approach or a model that is able to incorporate the strengths of all three, allowing the learner to a full and complete exposure to the four types of knowledge in the knowledge base and the variety of experiences and activities outlined by the continuum. I refer to such an approach as the integrative model.

The integrative model is a systematic approach to second language teacher education that ensures that the learner gains pedagogic, content, pedagogic content, and support knowledge through a variety of experiences and activities. However, merely exposing the learner to the four knowledge types through various activities and experiences does not ensure an integration of the four types of knowledge that form the knowledge base. In order to accomplish this, a reflective practice component must be included in the program.

By reflective practice I mean the critical examination of all aspects of the knowledge base as the student is engaged in the experiences and activities in the professional knowledge source continuum. Simply being exposed to such experiences and activities does not necessarily mean that they come together in such a manner as to allow the student to gain critical insights that result in professional development and growth. Schon discusses "reflection in action" (1983), in which the teacher first acts, then reflects on the action, develops hypotheses which are tried out in more action. Thus, we can see a cycle of teaching, reflection, development of hypotheses, and additional action in which the hypotheses are tried out in the classroom.

Cruickshank and Applegate (1981:553) define reflection as "helping teachers to think about what happened, why it happened, and what else they could have done to reach their goals."

As Posner (1989:21) points out, reflective thinking is not new, and can be traced to the work of such early educational thinkers as Dewey (e.g., 1933). While reflective practice is often advocated for in-service teachers as a way of helping them to become more effective teachers, I believe that it can be a crucial element of pre-service programs. Posner (1989:22) believes that reflective thinking helps students in practice teaching "to act in deliberate and intentional ways, to devise new ways of teaching rather than being a slave to tradition, and to interpret new experiences from a fresh perspective." In addition, helping our students to develop reflective thinking will help them integrate the various types of knowledge that they receive during their program of studies to achieve a coherent and cohesive philosophical approach to teaching. Incorporating reflective practice in an approach to second language teacher education offers the possibility of being integrative in that received knowledge provides the theoretical aspects for thinking about experiential knowledge, and experiential knowledge offers opportunities for trying out and testing received knowledge.

It is beyond the scope of this paper to go into detail on any specific reflective practice activities or exercises that could be part of a reflective practice component in an integrative approach. However, in my work with pre-service teachers I have found that journals, discussion groups, and specific exercises such as those in Posner (1989) are excellent activities to help students to begin to think reflectively.

It is important to stress at this juncture that this fourth model of second language teacher education, to be effective, goes beyond the occasional use of a reflective practice activity in a course or two as students go through their program of studies. To be truly integrative, reflective practice activities have to be a critical part of the students' entire program of studies, and used in all courses, regardless of the type of knowledge with which they are concerned.

Conclusion

In this paper I examine various models and the knowledge base of second language teacher education in an attempt to determine how these two aspects of second language teacher education interact. I hope to have demonstrated that a reliance on the apprentice-expert, the rationalist or the case studies approaches would be shortsighted. I propose that the ideal curriculum for a second language teacher education program is one which integrates experiential and received knowledge in some systematic fashion. The integrative approach, which combines aspects of the apprentice-expert, the rationalist and the case studies models with reflective practice, comes the closest to having this potential.

The integrative model can systematically incorporate the strengths of the other three models, allowing us to ensure an adequate coverage of the four types of knowledge that form the knowledge base. In addition, it offers our students an approach to practicing their profession that could last them for a lifetime of professional growth and development.

In closing, I would like to make an observation. It is my opinion that there is an overemphasis on the rationalist model in second language teacher education. Ur (1992) eloquently details the shortcomings of this model, in addition to those I mention in this paper. I believe we should take advantage of the case studies model. But, in order to do so, we must first develop the literature to support the model. This can only be done with the collaboration of those involved in teacher education and the teachers in the field. It is through these two parties working together that we can begin to develop the compelling case histories necessary to

launch a case studies approach in second language teacher education. . This would have the additional benefit of empowering ESL/EFL teachers, as it would include them in the process of creating the knowledge base.

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PREPARING TEACHERS TO USE A MEANING AND STRUCTURE BASED METHODOLOGY

Elizabeth Gatbonton

Generally, when an institution is about to adopt a new curriculum or methodology it prepares its teachers by inviting them to participate in a teacher training program. The teacher training program may come in the form of an in-service training, a teacher recycling program, or a combination of both. In the **in-service training format**, the teachers attend formal workshops, usually after class hours, held in the premises of the teaching institution. They discuss the goals, rationale, and procedure of the new methodology. Depending upon the time available, the theoretical workshops are accompanied by practical workshops where new teaching materials illustrating the new methodology are demonstrated by appropriate experts (e.g., a teaching consultant, the curriculum and/or materials developer). Or, the teachers themselves try out the new materials on their own or under the supervision of experts. During the practical workshops the teachers are asked to record (e.g., they write journals or diaries, fill out questionnaires) and reflect upon what they have observed about their own teaching practices as well as those of others in the hope that they themselves come to the conclusion about what to keep or change (Wallace, 1991, Richards & Nunan, 1990).

In the **teacher recycling format** a few teachers are usually handpicked and then encouraged to take a leave of absence (most cases, paid leave) from their teaching duties in order to take courses that would prepare them to implement the curriculum. The credits gained can be applied towards a specific certificate or degree. In most cases, the courses would include both theory (e.g., curriculum development or course design, language acquisition) and practice (e.g., they have a practicum of a few weeks in a real school under the supervision of a full time teacher trainer). **In a combination of in-service and teacher recycling format**, only a few teachers may at first be selected to be trained. Then, when they are ready, they take a turn in conducting workshops for the benefit of colleagues who have not yet had the training.

But what happens when time and the exigencies of the program do not allow opportunity for formal training programs such as described above? Review of literature on teacher training and observation of various teacher training situations reveals that the most common option taken in this case is to proceed with implementation without a formal teacher training program. The teachers learn to implement the curriculum as they go along. This option is, however, usually

adopted only when, first, the new curriculum does not radically depart from what the teachers have already used or from what they have been trained to do during their teacher training years. Second, when the teachers are all equally experienced and possess the necessary confidence to make any new curriculum work.

There are, however, many teacher training cases where teachers who are experienced and seasoned must use the curriculum alongside those who are new and inexperienced with it. These cases are typical in language teaching situations in countries like Asia, Africa, South America, etc., where western English speaking language teachers are commonly invited to work with local teachers in the hope that the latter will learn new teaching skills and methodologies. The curriculum used in these situations is often: a) a curriculum imported from the English speaking teachers' countries, with minor adjustments to suit the local teaching context, b) a curriculum designed by curriculum experts in the non-English speaking teachers' country , or c) a curriculum designed by both the local non-English speaking teachers and their English speaking visitors. Case A above results in a situation where the visiting teachers are experienced with the curriculum but the native teachers are not. Case B involves local teachers who are experienced while the visiting teachers are inexperienced with the actual curriculum itself but have expertise in general learning and teaching principles; hence they have been asked to help the local teachers implement their curriculum better. In Case C, where the curriculum is a joint product of the two teaching groups, both are experienced with certain aspects of the methodology and inexperienced with other aspects of it. If training is held for scenarios A and B, the training is directed towards the group with less experience. In Case C, the training is for both groups.

In this paper I will discuss a type C teacher training program such as found at the Canada-China Language Centre in Beijing. I think this teacher training situation is interesting to examine because it compares with many others in Asia but is different enough from teacher training situations in the West, where most of our assumptions and theories of teacher training have been developed. The methodology that we have developed at the CCLC can be used in many language programs in this part of the world. Consequently, the teacher training program we designed will be interesting to many of us here. I will begin by describing briefly the Canada-China Language Centre, then I will describe the communicative methodology we have developed for it. Next, I will outline the areas of teacher expertise needed to implement this communicative methodology. Finally, I will discuss the teacher training program developed to help the teachers attain the expertise they are lacking.

The Canada-China Language Centre (henceforth CCLC) is a language training program jointly administered by Saint Mary's University of Halifax, Nova Scotia, Canada, and Beijing Normal University in Beijing, China. It is funded by the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) as a service program for its joint projects with China. Its primary mandate is to help Chinese professionals and scientists raise their level of competence in English or French so that they would be able to benefit maximally from living in Canada and working or studying in its educational and business institutions. These students are chosen from different government ministries participating in joint ventures with Canada and they represent different fields of specializations ranging from medicine, engineering, translation, forest fire fighting, and agriculture.

The teaching staff consists of Canadian teachers recruited from across Canada and Chinese teachers from Beijing Normal University. Since the program is funded by Canada's official aid agency, both groups of teachers do not only teach but also participate in a transfer of skills program geared towards preparing the Chinese to take the Centre over in time.

The CCLC Communicative Approach

To promote the goals of the Canada-China Language Centre program, we developed a methodology that integrates the salient features of traditional Chinese teaching methodologies into a western based communicative methodology. Since Chinese teaching methodologies still have a strong focus on form (they rely greatly upon the use of grammatical explanations, text analysis, and memorization), we designed our communicative methodology to allow a place for form-focused activities such as these without violating its communicative nature. The basic premise of the CCLC methodology is that communication is the main means of promoting acquisition but that attention to the formal properties of sentences used in communication facilitates this acquisition.

While attempts to combine communication and formal instruction in language pedagogy are not new, the CCLC methodology is unique in having been designed according to a combination model suggested by Brumfit (1979) and Ellis (1982), a model which proposes a progression of classroom activities from **communication to formal instruction**. Most existing form and meaning-integrated methodologies are based on a model that proposes a progression in the opposite direction: from **formal instruction to communication** (Celce-Murcia & Hiles, 1988), from skill getting to skill using (Rivers & Temperley, 1978), or from

mechanical to meaningful to communicative drills before free communication (Paulston, 1971; Paulston & Bruder, 1976; see also Weinert, 1987).

Between the two models, we felt that we would be better able to maintain the primacy of communication in our methodology by developing it within the communication-before-formal instruction model. Indeed, by putting communication ahead and designing the activities so that the students encounter their i+1 (Krashen & Terrell, 1983) while communicating, we ensure that their first exposure to and learning of new target elements occur in communicative contexts. In contrast, in the formal instruction-before-communication model, the students' initial exposure to new target elements is necessarily conducted outside the communicative context. The reason for this is the following: The purpose of formal instruction is basically to help the learner note the structural properties of utterances (e.g., their intonation and stress patterns, word order, underlying structure) and abstract from these, generalizations about the language. In order to lead learners to note these properties, the utterances have to be presented in such a way that their commonality can be easily pointed out. In most cases, this means listing them in contiguous order on the board. For example, to show the underlying structure of utterances such as *I had peanut butter* one must have other examples with similar surface structure: *I ate lettuce, I bought lettuce*, and present them in a string so that their common properties immediately become apparent (Dacanay, 1967). One cannot, however, do this without taking the utterances out of context. There is no communication exchange in the natural everyday use of language that I can think of that would call for the use of these utterances in the juxtaposed manner described here.

By adopting one model and not the other, I do not mean to suggest that one is better or less suited than the other *per se*. The value of each can be judged only in relation to the goal for which it is used. I think the formal instruction-before-communication model is best suited when the aim of teaching is grammatical knowledge. When we developed the curriculum for our Centre (Gatbonton & Gu, 1990), the goals and the time constraints of the program (students have only one term chance to be at the Centre) led us to argue against a structure-based syllabus and opt for a communication oriented, task-based one. Given this, we felt the formal instruction-before-communication model would not be suitable but the communication-before-formal instruction model would be.

Two phase process: In terms of details, the communicative methodology we have developed assumes that adult learners will benefit from a teaching process that involves two distinct but nevertheless highly integrated phases: a **Communication Phase** where they engage in genuine communication and a

Consolidation Phase where they step out of the communication process to examine in greater detail the formal properties of the language used.

In the Communication Phase the students participate in authentic communication exchanges such as role plays, survey activities, interviews, games, simulations. Authenticity is defined not in terms of how closely the activities physically resemble their counterparts in the real world but how closely they replicate the psychological characteristics of real communication (Gatbonton & Segalowitz, 1988). Real communication occurs when there is a genuine exchange of meanings accompanied by the presence of pressures and tensions arising from not knowing ahead of time what to say and from being alone responsible in directing the flow of conversation and terminating it.

In our methodology, we assumed learning and acquisition to occur only when participation in the communication activities is of the kind that a) allows the students to **learn and rehearse** at the same time and b) allows the students to **learn target elements at the moment of need.** Most existing communicative methodologies exclude the notion of rehearsal; our methodology makes it a central component. We designed the activities of the communication phase not only to be **genuinely communicative** (i.e, participants pursue concrete goals such as producing a chart or table, winning a prize, constructing an actual object, writing a memo that is actually sent, preparing a report that gets actually delivered) but also to be **inherently repetitive**. Inherently repetitive means that repetition is integral in the procedure of the activities themselves and not just simply added on for language learning purposes. To understand what this means, we can illustrate with one of the modules in our speaking course, Class Profile. In this module, the students are asked to draw a profile of the class; that is, to describe the common characteristics of students attending the class. We designed the procedure of this activity in such a way that the goal can only be attained if everyone is interviewed in class, an activity requiring the repetition of the same action (someone asking another person questions) using the same set of questions. This activity is genuinely communicative because the students exchange real information; real information is gathered, classified, and then made the basis of the generalizations formed about the class as a whole. Another illustration is a reading activity in which the students have to report on the contents of several articles on the same topic. To make such a report the students have to repeat the same steps: read each article, summarize its contents, then pool the information derived from all the articles.

In addition to participation being simultaneously rehearsal and learning, we also designed the procedure of our activities so that learning new target utterances occurs at the moment of and is dictated by need. Basically the procedure is as follows: After a brief but important preparatory stage where the teacher explains the aim and purpose of the activity and draws out from the students the background knowledge that they need to carry out the activity, the students are asked to begin a particular communication task (e.g., They complete a chart by gathering information from their classmates; in a reading class, they read an article to gather a specified set of information). They do this task in any or a combination of different student participation patterns such as doing the task alone (Individual Work), doing it in pairs (Paired Work), or in small groups (Small Group Activity), or with the rest of the class (Whole Class Activity).

Once set up, the students are left to complete the task using whatever linguistic resources they can muster at this stage. For as long as their resources are sufficient for the task, no intervention takes place. The teacher merely directs and facilitates the activity and observes the students' behaviour. Once however, the students experience "difficulty" (and they will, if the activities are properly designed; for example, they are unable to find the right utterances to express what they want, they cannot say a particular utterance correctly, or they produce utterances less ably than expected at their level such as when their intonation and sentence stress patterns and/or pronunciation render the utterances less intelligible than desired, or their vocabulary is less sophisticated than expected at this stage), the teacher makes available the resources they need at the moment of need. The teacher can accomplish this in two ways. She either makes them aware of the missing utterance or a better version of it through accepted sociolinguistic intrusions into the communication act just at the moment they falter; or she seizes a convenient pause in the communication act to place these utterances at the students' disposal. In the first instance, she simply prompts the missing utterances as would a fluent speaker do to another who is temporarily groping for the right word or phrase. Or, she simply models a more acceptable version of the students' imperfect utterances in the manner of one seeking confirmation or signalling a misunderstanding. In the other instance, (done only when the difficulty is common to many students), she writes the appropriate versions of these sentences on the board and asks the students to do a few things with them, ranging from simply repeating them to quickly (and the emphasis is on quickly) practising their intonation and stress patterns.

In the Consolidation Phase the students are led to focus in greater detail upon the utterances that they have earlier used; in particular, on utterances that gave them difficulty during the Communication Phase. Depending on the nature of the difficulty, the Consolidation Phase activities can take different forms.

1) If the students' problem with the utterances is inability to produce them rapidly and smoothly, the Consolidation Phase can take the form of providing them with fluency inducing exercises. These are exercises whose main aim is to make the students repeat in context verbatim sentences already learned.

2) If the problem is accuracy, the activities can range from doing exercises leading the students to produce correct versions of utterances they tend to produce erroneously (I went to bed at seven instead of I went to the bed at seven) to analyzing the formal properties of sentences (e.g. explaining the grammatical properties of the sentence, its intonation and stress patterns) to analyzing the relationship among the utterances in a text (e.g., discourse analysis).

3) If the students can already produce these utterances but should learn more sophisticated ways of saying the same things, the exercises can range from looking for alternative utterances (e.g., vocabulary expanding exercises) to reading dialogues and paragraphs where more sophisticated versions of the target utterances are used.

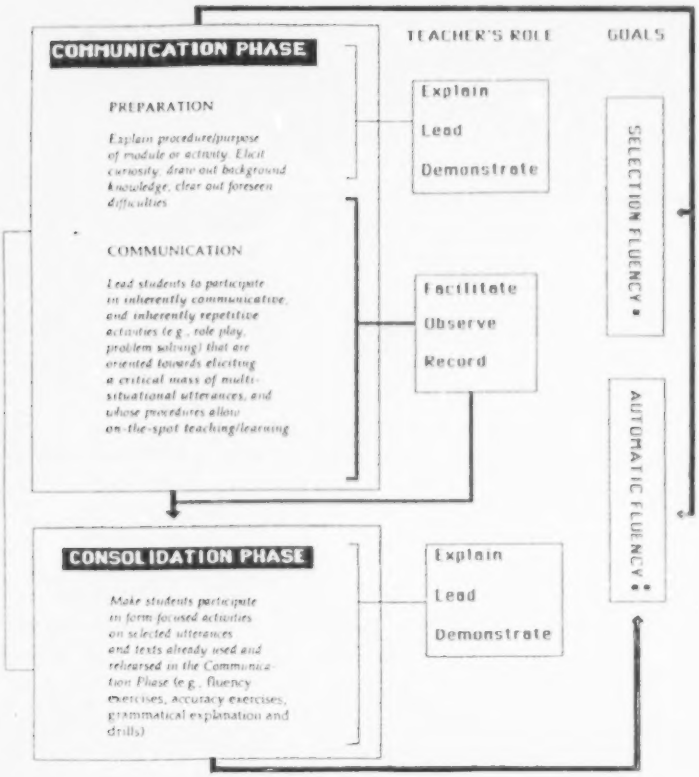
4) In some cases the content of the texts may be more important to focus on so the consolidation exercises are those examining content (e.g., the meaning of the utterances, their illocutionary force, or socio-cultural uses).

Integration of Communication and Consolidation Phases: Needless to say the success of this teaching process lies in how well the two phases are integrated. In designing our methodology we insured integration not so much by making the Consolidation Phase **physically** follow the Communication Phase but by making the Consolidation Phase strictly dependent upon the former for its aims and procedure. In practice this means arranging things so that consolidation activities are conducted only in response to a need identified during the Communication Phase. For example, if it is clear during the Communication Phase that the students have problems with past tense utterances, then the consolidation activities will focus on this tense. If the students have control of this aspect, then others can be focused upon.

Integration is also achieved by making the type of Consolidation Phase activity dependent upon the nature of difficulty the students have with the utterances. Thus, whether the consolidation phase activities will take direct shots at promoting accuracy and smooth rapid delivery, whether they will focus on explicating points of grammar or structure, or analyzing the content structure of utterances will depend on whether these are what the students need to be able to carry handle their communication tasks in the real world.

The following diagram shows how our two-phase process works.

Figure 1: The CCLC Methodology
(Communication-before-formal instruction Model)


COMMUNICATION PHASE
PREPARATION
Explain procedure/purpose of module or activity. Elicit curiosity, draw out background knowledge, clear out foreseen difficulties
COMMUNICATION
Lead students to participate in inherently communicative, and inherently repetitive activities (e.g., role play, problem solving) that are oriented towards eliciting a critical mass of multi-situational utterances, and whose procedures allow on-the-spot teaching/learning
TEACHER'S ROLE
GOALS
Explain
Lead
Demonstrate
Facilitate
Observe
Record
SELECTION FLUENCY*
AUTOMATIC FLUENCY*
CONSOLIDATION PHASE
Make students participate in form focused activities on selected utterances and texts already used and rehearsed in the Communication Phase (e.g., fluency exercises, accuracy exercises, grammatical explanation and drills)
Explain
Lead
Demonstrate

*Selection fluency: knowing what to say, when, to whom, where
*Automatic fluency: ability to produce utterances correctly and without undue hesitation and pauses

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The diagram shows the two phases we have discussed, the role of the teacher in each phase, and the contribution of each phase to the goals of promoting fluency. Fluency is defined here in terms of two components (Gatbonton & Segalowitz, 1988): The ability to know what to say to whom and when (selection fluency) and the ability to produce utterances smoothly and rapidly, without unnecessary hesitation and pauses (automatic production fluency). Note that in this model, the Communication Phase contributes to the promotion of both automatic and selection fluency; the Consolidation Phase contributes to the promotion of automatic fluency.

The diagram also shows that the teachers play a wide variety of roles: At the beginning of each phase, they play the role of organizers whose main task is to pave the way for the activity to be done smoothly. In most cases, this involves making the students aware of the purpose and goal of the activity and in explaining/demonstrating to them the procedure. It also involves drawing out the students' background knowledge that will help them understand what to do (e.g., current knowledge of topic in a reading or listening activity). During the main stage of the Communication Phase, they play the role of facilitators, observers, and recorders. Once they have set up the activity, they take note of the students's behaviour, noting their difficulties. Later, they make quick decisions about what type of consolidation activities could address these difficulties. During the Consolidation Phase, they lead the students to rehearse certain utterances in context, and/or help them make generalizations about the utterances they have practised and (in some cases) analyzed.

Teacher Training Concerns

The question for teacher training is what kind of expertise teachers need in order to handle the demands of this combined methodology. I will identify some areas where teachers must have expertise in and explain their training needs in each. Then, I will discuss teacher training techniques that would be useful in helping those who lack expertise in any of these areas.

Areas of expertise: To implement our combined methodology I have identified five areas where the teachers should show strong competence. 1) Procedural knowledge 2) Classroom management skills 3) Intervention skills. 4) Pedagogical skills, and (5) Linguistic proficiency

Procedural knowledge refers to knowing the basic procedure of each of the major components of our combined methodology: i.e., knowing how to handle the communication activities in the Communication Phase and how to conduct form-focusing activities in the Consolidation Phase. This knowledge also involves knowing how to apply the general communicative approach to each of the skill areas; in other words, how to use the combined approach in teaching reading, speaking, reading, and writing.

When the Centre was first established in 1982 (Patrie, 1982, Gatbonton, 1990), both the Canadian and the Chinese members of the planning committee agreed that the teaching approach would be a communicative approach. Although the implications of this decision was not clear then, it led to a situation where one group (the Canadian teachers) possessed the procedural expertise in using the approach but the other group (the Chinese) did not. Indeed, most of the Canadian teachers were hired expressly for their experience with communicative approaches and knew exactly what to do in their classrooms. Most of the Chinese teachers, on the other hand, have never before used a communicative approach, much less seen how it was used (Cray, 1989).

To correct the imbalance, the Canadian and the Chinese teachers were paired in teaching each group of students. It was assumed that if the pairs planned the lessons together and/or team taught their classes, a transfer or exchange of skills between them would automatically ensue. Such an approach has been known to work well in teacher training in western teaching contexts and there was no reason to suspect that it would not work at the CCLC. Despite a lot of goodwill on both sides and a great deal of hard work, however, it became clear that this scheme was unworkable, at best. After several terms of co-teaching, there was no visible sign of skills having changed hands; the Canadian teachers continued to implement the communicative approach in their own way, the Chinese paid lip service to using certain communicative activities but, on the whole, continued with their own methodology. Analysis of the problem revealed two major causes. The first was the fact that the communicative approach, although already firmly established in our classroom, was still without a tightly defined methodology (Richards & Rodgers, 1986: 63-96). While this did not bother the Canadians (to some, in fact the very flexibility of the approach was its greatest selling point), it posed a formidable problem to the Chinese teachers. They were expected to master the approach by observing their Canadian counterparts use it but their observations revealed that there seemed to be as many different ways of implementing the approach as there were teachers using it. Their efforts to figure out what to do left them frustrated (Burnaby & Sun, 1989), prompting them to revert to their traditional practices.

The other problem resulted from the differences in the learning styles assumed in a communicative approach and that of Chinese students (Sun Li, 1985; Wang, 1986; Zhou, 1988). The communicative approach assumes learners who are willing to participate in communication activities and expect to learn the language by the mere act of participating. Communication oriented teachers see their role simply as facilitators creating a favourable environment for learning. They no longer see themselves as knowledge dispensers, considering their involvement in giving formal instructions about the language (e.g., grammatical explanations, automatization) to be minimal -- only when doing so facilitates communication.

In contrast, the Chinese teachers consider their student learning to be still dependent upon them providing instructions. Their students' role is to receive such instruction without question, committing them to memory as best they can (Crook, 1985, Maley, 1984; Li Xiaju, 1984). During the lessons, the students read texts, analyze them, abstract rules about them and memorize them. The teachers lead the classes, single out language points to be learned and insure that they are indeed learned or memorized. Finally, learning is considered a serious, even a dull undertaking, so that the game like nature of some of the activities in a communication approach (puzzles, games, problem solving activities) appeared to contribute little to learning. In short, there was a large gap between what the Chinese teachers know and believe to be the way to promote learning and the procedure of the communication activities.

When we decided to adopt a combined methodology, we were motivated by the need to correct this imbalance caused by the Canadians being in the position of experts (by the mere fact that it is their version of the communicative approach that was being used), while the Chinese were in the position of apprentices. We thought a combined methodology integrating elements from western based communicative approach and from traditional Chinese methodology would put our Chinese teachers on a more or less equal footing (to the degree that that was possible) in terms of training needs. The Canadians would continue to be in the position of experts with the communicative component but learners with regards to the formal instructions component. The Canadians would be "learners" in conducting form-focused activities not because they have had no experience with it. Many, particularly, the older ones did. In the last decade, however, due to the increasing popularity of communicative approaches, many have accepted the peripheral role of form focusing activities in language acquisition and sceptical of their usefulness. Part of the training they need is to change these attitudes and encourage them to accept a compromise. In addition, the form focusing activities that the Chinese teachers used were different in some ways from those used in the West when they were still widely used and exposure to these ways are in order. For

their part the Chinese would be in the position of experts with regards to how to use formal instruction techniques in a Chinese context, but learners with regards to handling many aspects of the communicative component of the methodology.

At the same time, both groups would have each something new to learn. This is because the methodology resulting from our combination effort have characteristics that were found in neither of the original components. For example, the communicative component of our approach is more structured than the original communicative model on which it was based. This resulted from our having imposed upon our communication activities the need to meet the triple criteria of being genuinely communicative, inherently repetitive, and multi-functional utterance eliciting. Doing so, we introduced constraints on the freedom of teachers to choose the activities they want. They have to use only those exhibiting the chosen criteria and not any others.

We have also outlined a specific set of procedures on how to conduct the activities, indicating whether one starts with pair work, small group work, etc.. In terms of training needs, the Canadian teachers have to learn how to adjust to this more constrained communicative component and the Chinese teaches have to learn how to conduct them. In the same vein, the form focusing activities can no longer be simply any of those used in traditional teaching methodologies chosen at random or chosen according to a structural syllabus. In our methodology, these have to be carefully chosen only from those that flow naturally from the communication activities and have to meet students' needs made evident during the communicative phase.

To summarize, in combining form and meaning in our methodology we created a methodology that is bigger than the sum of its parts. Using this methodology calls for expertise different from those required in conducting each of its original components. Teacher training has to help the teachers acquire this expertise.

Of course, the teachers also need expertise in adapting the combined communicative approach to teaching the specific skill areas assigned to them because, while general principles are usually the same for all skills, some details are different from skill to skill. Thus, for example, the communicative component in teaching reading may take the form of reading for information while in speaking it could be role playing, games, puzzle, and problem solving.

Classroom Management Skills: Communicative methodologies, in general, require well managed classrooms that allow for pair work, small group work, and teacher-fronted whole class activities to be conducted at any time. But the combined communicative methodology developed for the Centre is particularly demanding for smooth classroom management. The triple criteria we imposed on the activities dictate that most make use of different combinations of these interaction patterns. For example, in the module, Class Profile, described earlier, the activity progression starts from the students working in pairs to interview their classmates, to working in small groups to pool their information, and to working as a class to put the findings together. To orchestrate a smooth transition from one pattern of interaction to another with the minimum of loss of time and effort, it is imperative that teachers have good classroom management skills.

In general, most teachers experienced with communicative approaches are also adept with classroom management techniques. The Chinese teachers, used only to teacher-fronted, one activity teaching, lack experience in managing multi-activity classrooms. Thus, they need special training in even simple matters as forming groups. Techniques such as asking the students to count off by threes or fours and having people with the same number form groups are also useful. Group supervision is another. What the teacher should do while the students are engaged in any of the interaction patterns discussed above is another area where training can be conducted for the Chinese.

Intervention skills: I am defining intervention skills as those skills the teachers need in order to help the students isolate (notice) the target utterances from the array of utterances they are exposed to during the communication and consolidation phases. The activities themselves are already designed with built-in mechanisms to call the students' attention to the target utterances in each lesson. An example of such a mechanism is repetition. Utterances that are repeated a great deal, especially verbatim, should be noted by the learners more than utterances that are not. But when these activities are based in the classroom, the teachers can go a long way in guiding the students to notice these utterances even more. Skills that can serve this purpose include:

1) the ability to organize talk so that each person has maximum chances of using and listening to the utterances. This includes the ability to keep control of the class so that people respect turns in speaking and holding the floor.

2) the ability to use sociolinguistic means to interrupt an ongoing communication in order to place at students' disposal the target utterances they need, at the moment of need. How to model correct versions of mispronounced words, how to prompt a missing utterance without disrupting the communicative flow are also examples of such skills.

3) the ability to take advantage of opportunities in the lesson to echo/model utterances presented by the students.

4) the ability to lead the students to produce full version of utterances instead of their short abbreviated versions. While in some cases, one or two word answers may be the sociolinguistically expected replies, it makes little sense to encourage the students just simply to give these short versions replies and not encourage them to attempt the full replies. They are already adept at giving the shorter replies and need no further practise in doing so. In contrast, many of them lack the ability to produce full utterances. Leading the students to use full utterances and still maintain natural communication flow requires great expertise on the part of the teachers.

In most language teaching programs students do not have many role models of language speakers outside the classroom. This makes it imperative for classroom teachers to attempt at all times to expose the students to correct models of the utterances they need. This means taking every opportunity in the lesson to rephrase utterances and to correct errors during and after communication. Of course, one should remember that correcting errors during communication takes different forms (modelling, rephrasing, repeating to conform, repeating to signal misunderstanding) from correcting them after communication (e.g., analyzing sentences, making generalizations). Ability to rephrase, model, correct in and outside communication are all important skills that the teacher must have.

Our observations of Canadian and Chinese teachers using the communicative approach shows that both sets of teachers need special training in developing intervention skills such as outlined above. Both groups have to learn how to elicit, allocate, direct, and manage classroom talk so that students are immersed in rich linguistic input. I have watched both Canadian and Chinese teachers direct their questions to only a few students, and/or are satisfied at only a few answering them. I have also observed teachers asking questions that no one answers or that they themselves answer because they are not sensitive about matching the pace of their questions to the students' answering pace. I have also observed classes where choral, one word answers are given all the time, or where

many students talk at the same time. How much opportunity for leading the students to attend to input is wasted in these classes.

Both groups have to learn what to do with student output and their errors. Chinese teachers, are in general, attentive to student errors and attempt to correct them each time they occur. They have to learn to make their corrections to be less disruptive and intrusive. On the other hand, some Canadian teachers have adopted a non-interventionist stand in the classroom. They view their work as simply facilitating the communication flow, but never interfering with it, never stopping it to do any "direct" teaching. These are the teachers who are influenced by the notion that comprehensible input is sufficient to promote acquisition (Krashen & Terrell, 1983). They do not believe in correcting errors nor in modelling utterances for the students. In the combined methodology we have at the Centre, these teachers need to learn to compromise on these matters.

Pedagogical Expertise: refers to the ability to impart information clearly and directly, even if only in giving instructions or in giving explanations about a formal property of a sentence or the language as a whole. In our combined methodology, success depends on how committed the students are to participating in the activities. The level of their participation and enthusiasm depends on how well they understand the goal and procedure of each activity. In view of this, teachers should have skills to make plain what the goals are. They should be able to explain or demonstrate the procedure that must be followed. They should also be able to use techniques such as brainstorming in order to create the right mind set for the students to do a certain activity.

Linguistic proficiency. A high degree of proficiency in English is required for teachers using this methodology. The level of proficiency should be such that the teachers can spot erroneous and faulty utterances quickly. As we have seen earlier the ability to understand the difficulty of the students as well as to what has to be done to overcome the difficulty is crucial to the success of the methodology.

The native speakers of English obviously have no problem with regards to proficiency but the Chinese teachers do. Many of them join the teaching faculty at the CCLC with skills English ranging from low intermediate to fluent. In some cases, their lack of proficiency causes them to feel insecure about their inability to handle students' questions or get involved in unprepared, unrehearsed activities. A low degree of proficiency also makes the Chinese teachers' task of observing/recording and judging students' problems difficult. Since the success of the methodology rests a great deal on their ability to help their students be aware of

and then overcome their errors it is imperative that any lack of ability in detecting these errors be addressed in the teacher training program.

To summarize the training needs: There are areas where both groups of teachers have training needs and areas where only the Chinese do. For example, both groups of teachers have to improve weaknesses in their procedural knowledge that spring from having to use a combined communicative methodology. Although some elements of this methodology are familiar to the teacher the resulting methodology is really "new". For example, the Canadian teachers have to gain ease and expertise in conducting form focusing activities, particularly those used in Chinese traditional methodologies. The Chinese, on other hand, have to learn appropriate procedures in conducting communication activities in the classroom. Both have to learn to use the new methodology to teach their particular skill area.

Both groups have to learn all, if not most, of the intervention skills I listed here. First, of all, the Canadians have to learn to be more interventionist (i.e., do more direct teaching, modelling, etc.); the Chinese, to be less so. Both groups have to learn to elicit, allocate, and direct classroom talk to benefit all members. Both have to modify their attitudes towards error correction, about giving formal explanations, about modelling and must learn appropriate techniques from prompting and interrupting during ongoing communication acts.

The Chinese have to learn classroom management techniques; particularly, in organizing group activities and from making a smooth transition from pair to group work to whole class activity and any other combination thereof. They need to improve their skills and confidence in using techniques such as brainstorming, skimming and scanning in reading, conducting feedback sessions in writing. Finally, they need more opportunities to increase their linguistic proficiency and their cultural knowledge.

Teacher Training Techniques

I will now discuss some of the teacher training approach and techniques we have used to provide our teachers with the expertise they need in using our combined methodology.

1. Workshops and demonstrations: Ever since the start of the program we have relied on the use of workshops to implement teacher training. The following types of workshops have been used:

a. Curriculum Development workshops. Although curriculum development workshops are not usually listed as teacher training devices, we found them to be very useful. Our teachers' participation in these workshops was merely a function of the fact that curriculum development occurred simultaneously with teaching the program. Yet, the insights gained because of it were extremely valuable for teacher training. During these workshops the teachers participated in decision making about the format of and characteristics of the pedagogical activities to be used within the methodology. Many were involved in developing and critiquing lesson plans in an effort to refine these characteristics. The model lesson plans were later used as prototypes for the materials developed to support the curriculum.

b. Orientation workshops: Once support materials have been developed for each of the skill areas, these were given to teachers to try out in their classes. During two or three week orientation workshops held at the beginning of each term, teachers who have already trial tested the materials were asked to demonstrate certain techniques used in them; e.g., brainstorming, skimming and scanning, role playing, setting and supervising group work, conducting jigsaw activities. The exchange of ideas that occurred during and after these demonstrations were helpful in clarifying fuzzy aspects of the methodology.

2. Skill teams: During the term, teachers teaching the same skill formed support groups in using the teaching materials for that skill area. Meeting at least once a week, they discussed the aims, goals, and procedures of the weekly lessons. Teachers who have already used certain materials before others discussed how they used them, giving suggestions on how they should be used.

3. Classroom observations: During the term, classroom observations were used as teacher training devices. The Centre's academic advisor and head teacher observed (sometimes video taped) teachers using the materials. Feedback sessions after these observations were valuable forums for discussing teaching techniques that should be kept or improved.

4. Team teaching: Team teaching has always been the centrepiece of our teacher training program. As we have already seen different team teaching schemes have been used ranging from teachers being paired to teach the class, to teachers of similar classes working together to plan but not co-teach the class, to having certain teachers act as mentors to other teachers and so on (Smith and Gatbonton, 1990).

Teacher training is still going on at the Centre as the full curriculum and its support materials are being implemented. If one were to summarize the insights we have gained in training teachers to implement a new combined methodology, they are as follows: Although the elements that make up a combined methodology are not new, the resulting product is. In training the teachers to use this type of methodology, it is imperative to define exactly what expertise is needed and then device a training program to promote this expertise. In implementing a communicative methodology or a combined methodology with large communicative component, we found that training is most needed in developing classroom management skills and intervention skills.

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IN TANDEM: PREPARING SINGAPORE TEACHERS FOR A CHANGING PRIMARY ENGLISH CLASSROOM - THE SINGAPORE EXPERIENCE

Maureen Khoo, Amy Sobrielo and Maha Sripathy

The image of wheels in tandem is at best a partial capture of the synchronisation that ought to exist between changing elements of education and society on one hand and the training of teachers who inherit and perpetuate the change on the other. In Singapore where changes in education are practically a way of life, the disproportion of penny-farthing wheels would be a more accurate image, with teacher training sometimes the smaller wheel behind maintaining pace under tremendous pressure, and sometimes needing to function as the forerunner.

The Diploma in Education Programme

The business of preparing new or pre-service teachers for the language classroom has been the distinct role of the only teacher-training college in Singapore, previously called the Teacher-Training College, then the Institute of Education, and since July 1991, the National Institute of Education forming part of the Nanyang Technological University.

For the preparation of Primary teachers there was for a long time only one major pre-service programme viz the Certificate in Education programme which was 2 years in duration for 'A' level Certificate school-leavers and 3 years for 'O' level Certificate school-leavers. The course has, since July 1990, been renamed the Diploma in Education course and has for some years now accepted only 'A' level certificate holders. Between 1990 and 1991, two new programmes for training of primary school teachers were started. This was the one-year Postgraduate Diploma in Education (Primary) or PGDE (Pr), and the four-year Bachelor of Arts/Bachelor of Science with Diploma in Education or Diploma in Physical Education (BA/BSC with DipEd/DipPE).

Only one major programme will be discussed here viz the 2-year Diploma in Education (the former Certificate in Education) that has been responsible for training the bulk of the primary teachers of today. The discussion of response to change would also be limited to description pertaining to in-campus course

delivery. This is not a denial of the fact that the teaching practicum forms the core of all teacher training courses. It is an admission that,in their current ratio to student numbers, the present small team of staff members handling the primary methods course retain maximum organisation for student learning only while they are on campus.

Factors Influencing Teacher-Training Curriculum

Several factors have influenced the determination, the constant shaping and refinement of the components, the methodology and the orientation of the Dip Ed course.

These are:

1) Post-1970 theoretical views about language learning and teaching upheld and advocated by the lecturing team;

2) on-going accumulation of knowledge base and perspectives of teacher training seen to be applicable in our local context;

3) external change that came in the form of national implementation of language programmes, syllabus and curriculum material changes

4) constraints of academic terms, articulation with Teaching Practice time,

5) constraints of the nature of student teacher knowledge and conceptions of teaching prior to significant field experience.

6) Composition and numbers in the lecturing team.

This paper will focus its discussion on how the Diploma in Education course has responded to the impact of recent theories of both language learning and teacher-training and to the external change factors (delineated above).

Theoretical Framework for Language Learning and Teaching Adopted

Recent developments in language teaching methodology have led to increased focus on learners' problems. This has served to reinforce the relatively recent understanding that the ability to use a language as a means of communication does not result from learning it as a formal system (Widdowson, 1980). In Singapore, a long marriage with a Structural (traditional grammar) language teaching programme and materials produced accuracy-conscious, inhibited language learners who could perform well at a discrete grammar task but not speak or write competently or confidently. Munby (1983) describes the traditional grammatical syllabus as "unrelated to the learners' communication needs" and having the effect of "demotivating many learners with devastating effects." He describes the attempt to move to a situational syllabus as also a failure. Singapore educators felt that correcting the balance with a strong dose of Communicative language teaching appeared to be the solution to a more effective attainment of communicative competence in our children. It followed then that in formulating the pre-service teacher-training course, and in the focus given to pedagogic content, the Communicative approach has been the dominant approach. To ensure the successful implementation of the Communicative approach to language teaching, the Primary Methods team have had to emphasize process rather than product in learning. Hence the current language curriculum for the teacher trainees as a whole explore the process approach - a natural outcome of adopting the Communicative approach. The four major skills are explored as processes which means teacher trainees need to understand what is involved in learning to read and learning to write, and how skills of reading & writing can be taught and consequently acquired.

Significant studies of early language learning and literacy acquisition solidly based on studies of children were used as framework for instruction (Clay, 1979; Holdaway, 1979; Cambourne, 1988;). Available research findings of early literacy and language development of Singapore children from P1 - P3 (Ng, 1980, 1984, 1987; Khoo & Ng, 1985) had a strong influence on curriculum orientations.Descriptions of natural language learning conditions (Cambourne, 1988) pointed clearly to the wisdom of integrated language instruction. Familiarity with experimental studies like "procedural facilitation" in writing preceded (and prepared the lecturing team for) the notion of "instructional scaffolding" as an alternative model of literacy instruction (Langer & Applebee, 1986). Such a notion in turn influenced procedural and content details of our language teaching curriculum for teacher-training.

Theoretical Framework Determining Teacher-Training Methodology

The major concern of any pre-service course for teachers is how best to prepare the trainees for teaching in the classroom. Regardless of whether there is external stimulus to change, teacher educators constantly search for improved ways to develop the professional abilities of student teachers and for the best way to balance theory and hands-on experience with accompanying analysis and reflection.

Content

First there is the difficult decision of **content and demarcation of content area.** Jim Eggleston (1985) expresses the dilemma faced by the lecturer in a discipline. Should he/she, in the limited time available, attempt to induct students into its form of disciplined enquiry, or merely describe those theoretical constructs which relate particularly to the student teachers' anticipated experience of schools, teachers and children in their first year of teaching? Shulman (1987) in analysing knowledge base for teachers explains that "the teacher must have not only depth of understanding with respect to the particular subjects taught, but also a broad liberal education that serves as a framework for old learning and as a facilitator for new understanding."

Content decisions become increasingly difficult as knowledge base of many areas of language learning and teaching (e.g reading comprehension and metacognition) expands at a prolific pace, and as knowledge transcends and merges disciplines (e.g. linguistics and psychology in a subject like reading).

Lee Shulman (1987) identifies 7 items as essential categories of teacher knowledge base:

(i) content knowledge
(ii) general pedagogical knowledge with special reference to principles & strategies of classroom management;
(iii) curriculum knowledge with particular grasp of the materials and programs.;
(iv) pedagogical content knowledge, that special amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers, their own special form of professional understanding;
(v) knowledge of learners and their characteristics;
(vi) knowledge of educational contexts (e.g.school contexts)
(vii) knowledge of educational ends, purposes and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds.

The curriculum areas suggested here for the teacher educator's attention is vast. Earlier training programmes would likely be loaded in (i) and (vii) leaving the trainee to encounter (ii), (iii), (v) and (vi) in an ad hoc fashion during Teaching Practice. Shulman makes the categorical point that it is *pedagogical content knowledge* (iv) that "identifies the distinctive bodies of knowledge for teaching." He explains that it "represents the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems, or issues are organized, represented, and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for instruction." If teacher educators accept that, it is left to us to explore the extent to which conditions can be created for new teachers to be initiated into such content- and context- specific knowledge.

Learning Environment

There is then the question of what learning environment is best.

John Goodlad and his colleagues (1990) postulated 19 conditions necessary to the preparation of teachers for effective education. Among these were two declaring that such programs must provide extensive opportunities for future teachers to move beyond being students of organized knowledge to becoming teachers who would see it natural to *inquire into knowledge* and its teaching and learning.

Context specificity has been found to be a necessary requisite condition for effective teacher training. Shulman in an interview with Dennis Sparks this year (Sparks, 1992) reinforces this point: (that)" individuals who have studied teaching and learning over the past decade have become increasingly convinced that most human learning and teaching is highly specific and situated. There is much less broad transfer and generalizability from one domain to another than we have thought". He cites Susan Stodolsky in her book The Subject Matters "that elementary teachers act very differently with the same students when they shift from teaching math to teaching social studies, and back again. They do not have a generic teaching style, but quite dramatically adapt their teaching to the material being taught."

Critical Learning Experiences

Certain critical experiences for teacher trainees are repeatedly identified for mention in different ways:

Making connections:

If learning is to mean the making of connections, then we see the need to provide for our trainees the connection between their own experience of learning and what we want them to know about the developmental learning children go through.

Teachers are also helped into becoming conscious of the theory of learning they are practising in the classroom every day through courses that proceed by moving from practice to theory and back again all the time (Thomson,1987).

Modelling:

Modelling is perceived to be a powerful tool. (Horan, 1987). The learning process is severely limited if there is no model available. He further explains that the modelling experience involves *observation* (which is extremely valuable for professional development), *discussions* of issues of classroom management, and, for those observed, a *taking stock* of one's practice. Catherine Y. Fosnot (1989) qualifies the aim of modelling . It must not lead to passive imitation. "The main purpose of the modelling is *for critique, analysis, and debate* of pedagogy..This type of experience serves as a constructive experience ..(Student teachers) become empowered, 'thinking' teachers.."

Modelling takes on a greater importance in the event that student teachers are confronted with new teaching techniques alien to their past experience and to the experience of their 'expert teacher' out in the field. This would be the typical situation for the fast-changing educational scene in Singapore.

Reflection:

Reflection is a crucial experience in teacher training. Component skills are cited as reviewing, reconstructing, reenacting, critically analyzing and supporting explanations with evidence (Shulman, 1987). Thomson (1987) posits that "just as teachers should involve their pupils in reflective evaluations of their own learning (what they have learnt and how they have learnt it) after being engaged in a classroom activity, so teachers should reflectively (and reflexively) evaluate their own teaching procedures..." He further explains that without understanding why and how good methods work, and the purpose they serve, there can be no judgement of their effectiveness.

The University of Leicester in 1982/83 included in a revamped 'Methods' course a need for students to publicly account for their own teaching experiences. Their teaching experiences were subject to being extensively debated on. The aim was that "having reflected extensively upon their own and other's practical experiences, students should have acquired a personal theory of education by the end of their training." (Furlong, 1988)

Reflection activities of diverse types are easily incorporated into training activities and assignments but demands more curriculum time.

Pedagogical diversity

It is important that there is pedagogical diversity. In the implementation of recurrent change demanded of policy makers, teacher educators have a responsibility to produce teachers who are flexible. No single approach is therefore advocated as the only methodological option available.

While providing trainees with the theoretical basis for adopting one approach as opposed to another, teacher educators have themselves to develop and model a repertoire of representations (demonstrations, concrete examples, analogies) to help the trainees transcend the unknown or half-known knowledge.

Mirroring classroom instruction strategies in training methodology

Then just as we teach trainees to be flexible and eclectic in their selection of methods, lecturers too must provide them with a range of training routes - lectures, discussions, projects, simulations, seminars and workshops.

Problem-based case instruction

Problem-based learning strategies such as case studies incorporate features that foster transfer of learning as long as there is sufficient similarities between the learning context and real life.

Such learning experiences are specially helpful when trainees are undergoing in-campus training without the access to the classroom and children.

Model: Of teacher development stages

For operational purposes, a model of teacher development stages forms a useful curriculum guide. Updated information on such models has the effect of reinforcing and confirming intuitive knowledge of teacher educators. The lecturing team subscribes to the following model:

At the initial stage a teacher trainee is receiving input that sets him thinking and reformulating his schema. Hence at this initial stage, he is taken back through time to recall, analyze and consolidate his understanding of language learning, and consequently, children's language learning.

Following this 'passive' receiving stage, theories of learning (in our context, of reading & writing) are expounded, underlining the essentials and exorcizing the outmoded. At this stage, preconceptions and misconceptions may need to surface, to be talked about and opportunities given to the student to compare what he thinks is going on to what is going on. He would have to deal with contrasts and contradictions (Shulman, 1990). This stage should equip the student teacher with propositional knowledge which enables the production of at least "an approximation to the required action." (Anderson,1982).

The third stage would likely coincide with his teaching practice when he learns to apply and make connections between propositional knowledge and the practicality of school expectations. As such trainees often fumble through their initial experience of teaching, he learns the wisdom of survival, and acquire automaticity, which for him does not mean having a mastery of the various components but rather an ability to function pragmatically by a reduced monitoring of the various components that leads to effective teaching.

Model: Of the teaching task

To complement the teacher developmental stage model, the lecturing team has been guided by a model of the teaching task, arrived largely intuitively and confirmed by literature and research on teacher education.

From Shulman's 'Model of Pedagogical Reasoning and Action', (1987), intuitive attempts to sequence learning tasks for teachers may be checked out against a model for stages of pedagogical preparation.

The model begins with comprehension of subject matter (including purposes, subject matter structures etc).

This is followed by processes he calls **'transformation'** which involves preparing content, use of a representational repertoire (analogies, metaphors, examples, demonstrations, experiential tasks), selection from among this repertoire and organizing them, and adaptation to student characteristics.

Only after this comes the process of teaching or instruction which involves management, presentation, questioning.

Evaluation processes follow and this is completed by **reflection** and arrival at **new comprehensions** of subject matter, of students, of teaching and of self.

The theoretical framework so far described, determining the content and methodology for the Diploma in Education programme, has been shaped, and reinforced through yearly and on-going accumulation of knowledge base about teacher-training. Refinement and procedural orientations of the course has also been largely affected by other change factors (See p.2). The theoretical orientations did not occur independently of external change factors. What could have remained merely academic dissemination of theoretical trends in pedagogy and language learning became institutionalised realities when policy makers implemented language programme changes on a national scale at a heady pace, in consecutive progression.

External Change Factors:

A host of change events affecting primary language teaching seemed to have occurred beginning in the 1980s.

Implementation of new Language Programmes

Between 1983 and 1987 a study of reading problems initiated these changes. This was 'The Reading Skill Project' (conducted by an Institute of Education team) - a longitudinal study of 624 Primary 1-3 children. Its findings (Ng, 1987) led to the implementation of the Reading & English Acquisition Programme *(READ) for lower primary language classes* in 1985 starting with implementation in 90 lower Primary classes, reaching 962 classes in 1987, and completing its teacher retraining programme in 1991. The Reading & English Acquisition Programme changed the approach to language learning through centering language on enjoyable and meaningful use. It advocated integrated language learning that was reading centred. Its main features were the immersion

of children in two main approaches to reading viz the Shared Book Approach (which involved class sharing of stories from an enlarged book) and the Language Experience Approach to reading. Accompanying this was an extensive reading programme called Book Flood and the building up of enrichment language activities like Listening Post and Word Banks.

Another major innovation in the primary language scene was the introduction of the ***Active Communicative Teaching programme (ACT) in upper primary classes***, another nationwide language teacher retraining scheme carried out jointly by the British Council Singapore as well as by staff from the Regional Language Centre. Between 1986 and 1990 all upper Primary teacher had been given training to carry out the ACT language programme.

The aims of ACT were similiar to that of REAP. Language teachers were to be retrained for a Communicative Approach to Language teaching. They had to understand how to teach for communicative competence rather than grammatical competence; they had to change their approaches so that language is learnt through use rather than usage, through language functions rather than form.

Like REAP classes,they needed to create a language learning environment that is interesting and non-threatening. Features of the ACT programme were integrated language teaching, Process Writing, an extensive reading programme for the classroom including the use of Uninterrrupted Sustained Silent Reading sessions, Communicative language games and activities, selective grammar teaching based on pupils' communicative needs, and the development of a thematic approach to language teaching and materials.

New Syllabus & Language text package

In 1991, a ***new Primary English syllabus*** was presented to schools. A ***new English Primary curriculum package***, the Primary English Thematic Series (PETS) was to accompany the new Syllabus, and to be delivered in stages, beginning with new primary 1 and 2 texts in 1992. The curriculum package is organized along thematic lines and aims at matching the language approaches already being practiced. Integrated language skill teaching is the hallmark of each unit's activities. Reading and writing methods already incorporated in the Reading & English Language Programme like Shared Reading, Language Experience, Dictated Stories and Word Bank activities are incorporated as activities within each unit. Units called 'Language Use' begin by statement of Communicative function as well as suggested language structures for practice.

Changes in the Teacher Training Programme

Prior to 1981:

The Special Methods course as the Teaching of English course was called between 1968-1981 was one of a few English courses. It was always accompanied by a Language Enrichment course (English Language 1) and Academic Courses in 2 specialized areas (e.g. English and Maths). It seems that content knowledge and curriculum knowledge was seen as the requisite knowledge base for teaching. The language skills were taught as separate skills listed under the main categories of oral English, Reading and Writing. Language Activities included discrete items like Story Telling and Poetry, Dramatic Activities, Spelling and Dictation. Each skill as taught covered aims, organization, methods and sometimes stages of development. The organization was linear and no comprehensive theoretical framework was evident from the curriculum description available.

Course hours were 30 hours each year.

1981 to 1985:

The teaching of Reading seemed to have gained prominence. It was evidently skill-based with skills listed as sight words, phonics, structural analysis, visual discrimination. The presence of a reading specialist in the team was evident from the details given of topics like 'the Reading Process'. The Writing syllabus dwelled on Guided and Controlled Practice methods giving ideas for class implementation and structured approaches to writing.

It seems at this stage that a concept of scaffolding in a restricted sense dominated. There was in evidence some attention to process. These included ideas similiar to REAP/ACT activities like 'dictated stories', multimedia stimulus to writing. Transformational exercises in writing were in evidence e.g. changing a narrative portion to instructions. The emphasis however was still clearly on accuracy of language in writing and a concentration on correctness of form.

The course duration was 90 hrs per year.

1985 onwards

The course that developed beginning with 1985 onwards and the coming of REAP can be seen to be organized into 6 modules.

Module 1:	Introduction to Language Teaching
Module 2:	Reading in the Primary School
Module 3:	Teaching Writing Skills
Module 4:	Children's Literature in the Language Classroom
Module 5:	Formal and Informal Assessment

Module 1: 'Introduction to Language Teaching' serves to help trainees ***make the connections*** between what they can recall of their school learning of language and the present scenario of language learning in the REAP and ACT classroom. For this purpose, a video was specially produced that gave an overview of the Communicative classroom in Singapore schools. Trainees are also exposed to a ***greater knowledge of curricular trends*** by a brief introduction to past language approaches. Finally, they are led to understand the differences between first and second language acquisition and the factors affecting language learning including the theoretical base for the current Communicative language teaching emphasis. Tutorial activities allow for ***reflection*** exercises as well as an examination of curriculum materials written under different philosophical frames.

Module 2: 'Reading in the Primary School' serves to provide trainees with a comprehensive knowledge base on Reading, the psycholinguistic views of the reading process, the different stages of the development of a reader, three major approaches to the teaching of reading viz the Shared Book Approach, the Modified Language Experience Approach and the Directed Reading and Thinking Activity. In this module tutorial activities allow for teacher ***modelling*** and hands-on practice in simulated 'childrens' groups. Further reinforcement of understanding of principles and rationale was given last year in including an assignment on lesson planning for these approaches preceding a group demonstration of the chosen approaches the following week. Other information about enrichment activities in REAP are delivered at lectures with the use of slides and videos. ***Context-specificity*** and ***experiential learning*** are thus emphasized. The importance of story reading to children and the pleasure it gives is emphasised through an established practice among the team of lecturers to begin each lecture and sometimes tutorials as well with the reading of a story or a poem. In this way, the condition of ***mirroring classroom instruction strategies through training strategies*** is created.

Module 3: The 'Teaching Writing Skills' module is begun by a lecture on the Reading-Writing Connection followed by an introduction to ACT and its principles and activities. This provides the students an understanding of the related nature of language development, and the *specific context* in which the Process Writing programme is run- in the upper Primary. A revisit of thematic units is provided for in the second year. Writing module tutorial activities include playing tapes of teacher-student conferencing, demonstrating (*modelling*) pre-writing activities, setting an assignmnent on planning pre-writing lessons based on a theme. A few weeks are given to this so that trainees are involved with hunting down resources, preparing presentation aids, discussing, reflecting and decision making *(context-specificity/reflection)*. The last week of this module brings them into the principles governing feedback and marking.

In the beginning of this year, the module finished off with an introduction to grammar lessons. Trainees are introduced to grammar teaching in terms of diagnosis, presentation, practice and production. The experience with needs diagnosis is linked with errors in writing encountered when dealing with 'marking' *(making connections)*.

The major assignment for the year is one in which trainees have to carry out a reading lesson with one child. They are judged on their observation skills about the child's reading level and needs, their choice of materials and approach to match the child *(problem-based case instruction)*. A taped recording of the child is required. Most important of all is the *critical reflection* that is required both on the child's reading performance and their own teaching.

These modules have been repeatedly chosen as they are seen to be 'survival skills' prior to a trainee's first teaching practice stint.

The *Second Year Programme* includes enrichment topics like exposure to drama and puppet play in the language classroom, the use of poetry for language development and metacognitive areas of knowledge like Story Grammar, Expository Text Structures. The most weighty part of the year's topics is on Assessment. Students are introduced to analysing writing, miscue analysis and running records, and the idea of portfolios and comprehension testing.

A development in the right direction last year was when students were made responsible for delivery of topics under guided conditions. Questions and references were given and students prepared to present (as a group evaluation task) seminar topics ranging from story grammar to puppetry. Response was most positive as trainees enjoyed their colleagues' varied styles of presentation.

As criteria for effective seminars included class participation, a great deal of this was achieved. Student feedback on this innovative way of combining learning with evaluation was that trainees read far more than they would ever have in the usual tutorial system and they felt an accomplishment for having acquired considerable depth of knowledge in the area they presented. The training programme in this way gave them an opportunity to *mirror* integrated classroom teaching behaviours and instructional strategies albeit to students who were their peers.

Time Constraints and Nature of Student Teacher Knowledge

Since the period for the Teaching Practicum (10 weeks each Dip Ed year) needs to coincide with the most suitable school month both for the schools and for the children to receive 'new' teachers, the first teaching practice term usually falls in early January or the third term of the Institute year. This leaves teacher educators less than 20 in-campus weeks in the first year of the programme to prepare trainees for 'survival' skills to handle English programmes in both lower and upper primary. Unlike in-service retraining programmes which offer a more focussed curriculum, pre-service training programmes include a vast array of courses of which language teaching method is only one.Under such time constraints, the lecturing team is constantly faced with difficult choices when wrestling with curricular decisions to include innovative but time-consuming ideas for hands-on experiential learning, demonstrations,reflection and discussion opportunities.

The enrolment numbers in the Dip Ed course and the ratio of lecturers involved with the programme have always posed realistic constraints - numbers in the range of 300-350 in each of the two year course handled by 7 lecturers with tutorial classes of 20-25 students.

Furthermore, trainees range in teaching experience, a good number having none. They also arrive with strong pre-conceptions and misconceptions of what language teaching is, drawing from their own vague experiences as primary students. (See 'model of teacher development stage', p.6). Faced with the prospect of teaching with new instructional approaches not within their own experience, trainees' misconceptions often pose great difficulties to their own learning. The attitude to teaching writing through a process approach is one such example of a problematic area.

The Lecturing Team: Environment for Professional Exchange

Exchanges: The Primary English Methods lecturing team of 6 or 7 through 1985 to 1990 adopted a procedure of fortnightly and term-end meetings for professional exchanges on curriculum. Team members, particularly classroom practitioners and those who had been involved in experiential-type of in-service training of teachers in the new English programmes pressed for more hands-on learning and attention to class management details in the delivery of theoretical principles. There was a definitive trend towards instructional activities that were approximations to classroom teaching. This was reinforced by positive feedback from trainees. Invariably, course-end evaluations spoke of enjoyable learning during 'hands-on' tutorial sessions or seminars resulting in clearer insights into the technical details of teaching procedures.

Composition: The mixed composition of lecturers was used to advantage. Expatriate lecturers brought with them fresh perspectives of both classroom programmes and teacher training methodology. Singaporean lecturers provided the input of realistic constraints in local schools. A heavy emphasis on reading from a psycholinguistic perspective came about because of reading specialists joining the team in 1983. One of the main strengths of the Primary methods course has been the close team work that has been made possible by the commitment, the sharing attitude and the personalities of the team members.

Articulation of Curriculum Change and Teacher Training

The series of curriculum changes has had repercussions for new teachers.

Since the Dip. Ed primary methods course prepares teacher trainees for both lower primary and upper primary language teaching, teacher trainees have always had to be prepared to teach at both levels. With the recent changes they have to be equipped with preparedness if not competence for both language programmes (REAP and ACT). At entrance point new teachers are expected to have adequate understanding of the principles advocated by the programmes. Lower Primary new teachers have to be competent in using two major language approaches viz the Shared Book Approach and the Modified Language Experience Approach. New teachers in upper primary have to be competent in guiding children through process stages of writing, to manage an extensive reading programme, and to be able to devise and implement language teaching based on themes.

All new teachers since 1985 need competence in managing a reading-centred language arts programme which involves a heightened level of classroom management skills, a knowledge of efficient and flexible use of group work and management of learning centres (library corner, listening post).

Being caught in the transition years of curriculum change brings on a peculiar problem and probably the most problematic task for new teachers or trainee teachers on practicum. They have had to know how to integrate the communicative language activities and approaches to reading & writing with the traditional language arts package in the years before the the emergence of the new and promised curriculum materials.

A similiar if not not problematic situation was faced for teacher trainees (and teacher educators) in the matter of knowledge of school assessments. While teacher trainees learnt of more wholistic types of assessments (portfolios, story retelling, running records and miscue analysis, selective marking) that should better match the reading and writing instructional approaches being practiced in the classroom, trainees found little opportunities to encounter these in the monthly school assessments which generally followed the old Table of Specifications drawn for Primary School Leaving Exam under the structural syllabus. Trainees had in fact to be alerted to expect the mismatch and to use traditional school assessments. This is a problem being resolved with the writing of new Table of Specifications still in process for the lower primary classes.

These are in fact overwhelming demands on teachers who may not have acquired working level of automaticity even in the most basic skills like framing of questions, and noise control.

The impact of curriculum change makes for greater complexity in teacher training. First, the teacher educator has to create opportunities to clear the preconceptions or misconceptions of learning and teaching that trainees bring with them from their past (Shulman, 1990), and then expose them to a diversity of methods, directing them towards reflection, comparision and yet encouraging growing autonomy in pedagogical judgment. But under conditions of national curriculum change, (s)he feels obliged to play the role of the implementor, that is to persuade and to direct attitude change.

The complexity is doubled when the training grounds fail to provide the target training opportunities. The student teacher may be placed in a school where the curriculum changes are not conscientiously implemented by individual 'expert' teachers. The 'casualties' of teacher training may arise in schools in such situations

or where trainees are, for reasons of administrative difficulties, not given target classes and subjects to practice in. For example, there have been a few unfortunate cases of trainees only being given teaching opportunities at one level of primary classes through 2 years of practice attachment to a school, or when they were caught in the middle of implementation stages of REAP and were teaching Primary 3s in schools that were just beginning the REAP programme in Primary 1. On graduating, such new teachers may be immediately required to teach with the very same instructional approaches (s)he missed practising in.

At the teacher educator end there was in the last 6 years, the complexity of having to prepare teachers for teaching with structural materials during teaching practice and preparing them to teach with new yet unseen communicative materials when they graduated.

This was a professional quandary only the teacher educators would know during changes in curriculum and programmes at a national level. This problem perhaps need not have stayed with us for years if implementation sequences concerning teacher training, syllabus generation, and curriculum material development could have been much more carefully planned and articulated.

Conclusion

If the students are to be able to "survive" their initial years in the service, more sympathetic contexts must be created for them. A greater understanding of the developmental process of a teacher is needed by teacher trainers, Education Ministries and schools. What the new teacher is faced with is aptly described by Professor Leslie Perry and quoted by Margaret Maden (1971): "Whereas initial training attempts to preserve an open mind, school retraining is concerned to see that the new teacher subscribes to specific beliefs about teaching and it puts him or her under social pressure to accept the beliefs and attitudes that are common to the rest of the staff. There appear to be few teachers capable of resisting this pressure, and consequently, they opt for a version of teaching recommended by retraining rather than by initial training .... they (young teachers) are immature and inexperienced and faced with a conflict: either to fight a lone battle for a method learnt in college but frequently disfavoured in the school, or to abandon the training just left and submit to new retraining." 'Retraining' is specially retrogressive when it amounts to a return to traditional teaching methods that are long established but unsound.

If student teachers at the end of the course, are to achieve "professional autonomy to implement methods which are theoretically, defensibly and demonstrably effective" (Eggleston, 1985) they will need to be very sure of what teaching theories they believe in especially in their first years in service. Having said that, however, one has to keep in mind that initial training is precisely that. Teaching demands a long period of training continuing throughout the in-service years and for it to be effective it requires the co-operation and collaboration of all involved parties i.e. training institutions, ministeries of education, schools and teachers themselves.

In an environment of constant change, the success of implementation of change programmes rests entirely on collaborative moves in tandem by all the above mentioned parties in planning and articulating training and retraining for change.

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BECOMING A RESEARCHER: TEACHER-CONDUCTED RESEARCH AND PROFESSIONAL GROWTH

Geoff Brindley

Introduction

The Role of Research in Language Teaching

In recent years, research has begun to occupy an increasingly prominent place in language teaching. This shift in emphasis has been brought about by a number of influences. First, with the introduction of learner-centred curricula, among the many skills needed by teachers are research skills to undertake critical investigation of their own classroom practice and to test different curricular proposals. Second, the increasing professionalization of language teaching, which has been accompanied by an explosion of knowledge, has also served to give research a higher profile. Teachers now have an increasing range of opportunities to undertake tertiary courses related to language teaching and applied linguistics. Such courses usually include some familiarization with principles of educational research and require participants to undertake an individual research project. As a result, there is now an increasing number of graduates who are experienced in research and who have the skills and motivation to carry it out. Third, at the level of program administration, research has begun to have an influence on the development of educational policy: as the amount of funding for language teaching programs has grown, so administrators and program managers have turned increasingly to research findings to assist them in making decisions on the formulation, implementation and evaluation of policies and programs (Brindley 1990).

In a climate in which research-based knowledge is assuming greater importance in language education, components on "the teacher as researcher" are now finding their way into teacher development workshops. Action research models developed in general education (e.g. Kemmis and McTaggart 1988) are now beginning to be applied in language teaching classrooms (see, for example, Nunan 1989). This trend coincides with a considerable growth in the number of classroom-based studies of various aspects of second and foreign language acquisition (e.g. Chaudron 1988; van Lier 1988; Ellis 1990).

Research and Professional Development: Making the Connection

Three types of research are traditionally referred to in the context of language education. The first of these is usually characterized as basic or "pure" research which is aimed at contributing to basic knowledge in the field, at building and/or testing theory. In the context of language learning, for example, research into language processing or learners' stages of development would qualify as "basic" research. The relationship of this type of research to professional development may seem indirect in that it does not usually speak directly to issues which are crucial to teachers such as methodology. However, as Lett (1983:14) points out, "while basic research may be irrelevant to classroom practice at a given moment, 'irrelevant' does not necessarily mean 'useless'". By adding to teachers' knowledge of the theoretical foundations of their field, basic research can provide conceptual frameworks within which they can situate and observe their teaching. In this way, it can assist them to analyse and articulate the theoretical basis of their own beliefs and practice and thus add to their reflective capacity.

The second type of research which is usually identified is applied research which addresses an immediate perceived need or specific problem. Applied research may be undertaken to provide a basis for decision-making (either at classroom or administrative level) or to illuminate pedagogical practice.For example, teachers may set out to investigate the effects of different types of error feedback and then modify their practices on the basis of what they find. The relationship of this kind of research to professional development is more direct. If it is teachers themselves who conduct the research, participation in research may contribute directly both to their knowledge and practical skills. Using the results of applied research conducted by others may also act as a stimulus to teachers' professional growth since it may involve them in systematic classroom observation, monitoring or hypothesis-testing.

The type of research which would appear to have the closest link with practice is action research. A detailed account of the various versions of action research is beyond the scope of this paper and can be found in McTaggart (1991). Though there is some disagreement in the literature surrounding the extent to which action research should be aimed at critiquing the existing social order, broadly speaking, it is characterized by its focus on concrete problems in the practitioner's environment and by its participatory and collaborative nature. It aims to:

- improve practice
- improve understanding of the practice by its practitioners.
- improve the situation in which the practice takes place.

(Kemmis 1983)

Action research obviously has the potential to be an intrinsic part of a teacher's professional growth since it is by definition carried out by practitioners and requires them to systematically investigate their own practice. One of the most commonly used models of action research, that of Kemmis and McTaggart (1988) involves practitioners in a sytematic spiral of planning, acting, observing and reflecting. For example, a teacher might systematically change his or her questioning behaviour and observe the effects. In this way, the outcomes of action research feed directly into and change practice.

THE STUDY

Background and Aims

Although many authors have argued that teachers should become researchers in their own classrooms and made suggestions as to how this might happen (e.g. Hopkins 1985; Nunan 1989), relatively little is known about how language teachers actually experience the research process. A small-scale preliminary study was therefore undertaken in order to investigate the perceptions of the research process of teachers who had newly become researchers and, in particular, to explore the relationship between teacher-conducted research and professional growth. The study aimed to address the following questions:

- How do teachers identify researchable issues or questions?
- What problems do they experience in doing research?
- What skills and knowledge do they feel they need to acquire to undertake research?
- What kind of support do they value?
- What do they see as the main benefits of doing research? How does undertaking research contribute to their professional growth?

It was hoped that the study would yield at least some preliminary information which would assist those responsible for providing professional and institutional support to teacher-researchers to better identify teachers' support needs and to provide appropriate in-service training and award courses on conducting research. At the same time, it was thought that insights on teachers' actual

experiences in carrying out research might be of help in demystifying the process for those who were thinking about embarking on research projects.

On the basis of the responses collected in this study it is planned to develop and administer a larger-scale questionnaire aimed at surveying a broader sample of teacher-researchers working in a wide variety of contexts.

Subjects

Six teachers were involved in the pilot study. Three were EFL and three were ESL teachers. All were experienced teachers, and had taught for periods ranging from six to over twenty years. At the time they were undertaking the research, they were all involved in a course of study, either an in-house course or a formal award course. Details of the subjects are contained in Table 1 below.

Subject	Teacher 1	Teacher 2	Teacher 3	Teacher 4	Teacher 5	Teacher 6
Teaching Experience (Years)	6	10	15+	12	10	8
Formal Quals in ESL/EFL	Cert ESL Dip ESL	Nil Grad dip ESL (in prog)	Nil In-house course (in prog)	MA (in prog)	MA (in prog)	MA (in prog)
Context	EFL	Adult Immig	Adult Immig	Adult Immig	EFL	EFL
Prior Research Experience	Nil	Nil	Nil	Nil	Undergrad Dissertation	Nil
Research Topic(s)	Problematic episodes in oral error correction	Learner interaction in group cloze Learner self-assessment	Strategies of a beginning reader	Effects of corrective feedback on students' oral production	Teachers' attitudes to student writing errors	Discourse in teacher training supervisory interviews

Table 1: Subject Biodata

Methods of Data Collection and Analysis

A semi-structured interview format was used to obtain the data. A set of open-ended questions aimed at eliciting responses to the above questions was distributed to the teachers prior to the interview. They were asked to consider these questions in the light of their personal experiences in doing research and to take notes if they wished. In the interview, the same questions were asked of all respondents, though they were free to diverge or expand as they wished. The interviews were then transcribed and analysed with a view to extracting recurring themes, comments and impressions.

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RESULTS: TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE RESEARCH PROCESS

How do teachers identify researchable issues or questions?

Teachers' research questions begin with concrete teaching concerns

All of the teachers reported that the question or issue they chose to investigate was generated by questions they had been asking themselves about aspects of their own teaching and its effect on learners. Teacher 3's response sums this up well:

> It was an area I felt the need to do something in anyway. I had been teaching for some time a very low level group, illiterate in L1 mostly and some of them had become good readers and others not. So that was the question and it's also a question that I had felt that I needed to answer for some time so it wasn't as if I had much difficulty with finding the question.

Sometimes the question or issue was one which had been preoccupying them for some time:

> I didn't so much become interested in action research, actually-although the lectures were very good-as questions that I'd been going over in my mind for about six months before I did the diploma course. (Teacher 1)

For some teachers, having to undertake a research project provided the stimulus to undertake an investigation of a question that they would not have followed up systematically otherwise:

> ....the area I focussed on was kind of an area of profeasional interest and it was the sort of area I was asking myself questions on anyway - but they were the sort of questions that I wouldn't go any further than discussing it with colleagues or from my general observations involved in that aspect of the course or..you know..sometimes on getting feedback from other people. So I didn't have any kind of...I'd ask myself questions and evaluate and so forth but it was nothing systematic. (Teacher 6).

Particular incidents may highlight a researchable issue.

One teacher's interest in his research area was sparked off by a 'critical incident'. He had been the subject of a classroom observation using a checklist and had received negative feedback on his teaching performance. However, he felt that the checklist did not adequately reflect the complexities of classroom interaction:

I had a feeling that classrooms were very complicated places. I felt quite strongly that the sorts of checklists that are used to observe teachers possibly gloss that complexity in a way that often misrepresented what was going on - probably didn't give much insight into the...didn't give much of an explanation about what happened and were often taken as definitive judgements on the quality of the teacher. So I had a fairly strongly felt dislike of these checklists - not in themselves - but as they were being used. (Teacher 1)

Research is a way of validating experiential knowledge or beliefs.

In discussing their motivation to undertake research, three of the teachers specifically mentioned that they saw research as a way of systematically testing their implicidy-held theories and instinctive understandings of practice. Research-based knowledge, they thought, would enable them to have a more secure pos[illegible]n when debating issues or defending their position with colleagues or others:

I think most of us were arguing on intuition and sometimes ideology rather than anything that was any sounder and so I thought it might be useful to be able to have something a little bit more substantial. (Teacher 4)

I wanted to demonstrate that my hunch was right but I also wanted to do some research into how native speakers actually did receive errors rather than merely just going on hunches because I hadn't done any specific reading on that topic. (Teacher 5)

What Problems do they Experience in Doing Research?

Focussing the question

Several of the teachers described the difficulties experienced in getting to a question that was narrowly-focussed enough to be manageable. In fact three respondents identified the need to define one's focus very precisely as one of the main lessons they had learned from undertaking their research project:

The main lesson (in doing the research) was just how precisely you have to think about defining the question before you start. In fact everything else rather pales compared to that...not only getting clear about it but getting clear about it before you start. (Teacher 1)

Some stayed with a broad question and ended up feeling dissatisfied that they had not focussed it more or arrived at more definitive answers to their question:

There's a slight disillusionment if you don't get clear answers to research questions....I've spent months doing this and all I've got is this list. (Teacher 1)

I didn't have a sufficiently focussed question at the outset - that would have helped quite a lot - so I was kind of thinking in various different strands and hoping that something would crystallize before my eyes. (Teacher 5)

Two teachers described how they had narrowed the scope of their research question by going through a two-stage process. This comprised first a "trawling expedition" where data were gathered with no particular investigative focus.This was followed by a close examination of the data aimed at identifying particular issues of interest which could be turned into more narrowly-targetted questions:

My initial question was very broad like that and to cut it down to some manageable level.... I guess the initial study was sort of like what's going on..what sorts of things and that was sort of like a ground-clearing kind of thing. We did a couple of transcriptions, we had a look what was going on and then decided to focus on some aspect of that overall discourse or that overall event. So I think that initial study was important in actually trying to narrow...it showed..it brought up some issues that were a possible focus.... (Teacher 6)

Interpreting data/finding analytical categories.

Four of the teachers mentioned the difficulties they had experienced in interpreting their data, in particular in finding or adapting appropriate analytical categories:

I ended up with pages and pages and little index cards all over the floor trying to decide whether this was an example of clarifying or an example of something... (Teacher 2)

The problems I had in actually categorizing some of the errors were fairly tricky but in the end I decided to use the categories that most of the teachers had picked out for themselves. That seemed to hold pretty well anyway... (Teacher 5)

Time constraints.

All of the respondents mentioned time as a factor which significantly affected their ability to carry out their research plans. Their comments related to a number of different aspects of time management.

Juggling teaching and research

Most mentioned the difficulties that they had in juggling research and teaching commitments, even when they were not working full-time. One teacher remarked that, unlike teaching, research seemed to be an activity that was "interruptible by others", even though time had been specially set aside for it.

The amount of time taken by data collection and analysis

Several teachers mentioned practical problems associated with data collection and handling which they had not anticipated, such as the time associated with transcription:

> I found transcribing was a nightmare - very time-consuming, not particularly rewarding because you haven't analyzed it yet. (Teacher 1)

> Transcription of data was a huge job: I'd be sitting in the kitchen and the kids would come in...'you've heard that bit, you've heard that bit!' (Teacher 2)

As a result of the realization of the amount of time involved in transcription and analysis, three of the teachers reported that they decided to narrow the scope of their investigation. Teacher 2, for example, commented that:

> .... at the outset we weren't entirely clear whether we'd be looking at aspects of the teaching primarily or at its effects on the students....Partly due to time constraints we decided to concentrate on aspects of the teaching...it took us a really long time to actually arrive at that, that we wouldn't be able to gather a lot of data on what the student were doing - their responses - because it would be just too time-consuming and would end up being a much bigger project. So we had to make reference to the students' responses but we didn't focus on these and more time would have been needed to document and record the students' responses in detail.

This teacher felt that where research was done for the benefit of the institution, it was important to have specific release time and that undertaking research without extra time was:

> too much on top of everything else...

Teacher 3, however, felt that teachers themselves could organize their time so as to build in time for research:

...People say 'we haven't got time to work so closely with students'. It's just a matter of reorganizing your time really and it all comes back to writing up objectives and that sort of thing. Just make everything a smaller focus. Feel that you can do less more thoroughly..... Maybe it's just a matter of teachers realizing that if they want to get into some research, realize that they're going to do it and just work out their objectives for their course plan in a different way so they do allow time for that..and so that that's programmed into the class time also...one hour a day or something to set this thing up.

What Skills and Knowledge do they Feel they Need to Acquire?

Data analysis techniques.

Several respondents reported some uncertainty with the use of analytical techniques.

In this connection, two teachers felt that some of their qualitative data could have been amenable to quantitative analysis but felt handicapped in not knowing how to use the necessary statistics:

In terms of analyzing it I felt I would have benefited from having a greater knowledge of statistics because I felt that some of the questions I was looking at really needed to be statistically correlated rather than me just kind of looking at them. (Teacher 5)

Academic writing

Three of the respondents mentioned problems with knowing how to present the results of their research in the appropriate style and format and highlighted the need to see models. The uncertainty of some beginning researchers about how to write up their research is typified by Teacher 1's response:

It was much more difficult than I'd expected due to my almost total lack of acquaintance with the genre. At uni the audience had been different, the subject area couldn't have been more different-I mean 'empirical' was a dirty word....I didn't realize that I had that problem until I started doing this.

As well as uncertainty concerning the structure of the research report, another question raised was how to present a report which could be used by colleagues as well as fulfil the requirements of a scholarly piece of writing:

So I think the overall schematic structure of it all I wasn't familiar with and how to present some of the data and the different levels..so that I think was problematic..... just sort of a lack of knowledge of "what does it look like at the end"?...I mean I had to physically go and get them, have a

look at them, say "Yeah, three or four or five chapters, six chapters and so on"..and the other thing was a little bit of confusion for me over the audience in that who am I writing for?-my colleagues, am I writing for the lecturers at university or the general public-that was initially problematic I think. And in the end I'm not sure if I resolved that - I wanted it to be useful to people where I work in order to.. for them to have a read..who are involved in teacher training and so on but it had to..be academic enough so that it would be useful for people beyond that institution. (Teacher 6)

Planning

Two teachers identified planning as a problem. One commented that although teachers should by definition be competent planners, he had difficulty in transferring these skills to carry out a research project:

I got skills in terms of planning and setting objectives and those sorts of things as a teacher but I think I wasn't applying them enough to the research. (Teacher 6)

What Kind of Support do they Value?

Working collaboratively with colleagues and/or supervisors

When asked what advice they would give to beginning teacher-researchers, three of the respondents highlighted the necessity to work collaboratively with colleagues, either in pairs or groups:

Work with someone else - a supervisor or a co-teacher...someone like that that you could talk to or clarify your ideas, question each other about why you were doing things, does this fit in with the research questions, keeping each other on the question, not doing things which are off on a tangent. (Teacher 2)

This was seen as particularly necessary at the beginning stages of research where clarifying the scope of the investigation was important:

A colleague doing the MA and I were doing study together as part of the pragmatics course. So it was useful in talking to her and we analyzed the data together, we looked at some of the features and we decided on some changes that we'd implement. So the initial part was very much a shared kind of process and that I think was important - that each of us brought different skills to the analysis stage. (Teacher 6)

The importance of choosing a research topic of interest and relevance to one's own workplace was emphasized by several teachers. If the project outcomes were seen as widely applicable in the workplace, enlisting colleagues as subjects or data gatherers became much easier. This in turn facilitated collective ownership of the project and enhanced the likelihood of the project outcomes being taken up by colleagues:

> If there hadn't been that general consensus on the value of the thing then it would have been more difficult for individuals to put themselves forward. The fact that everybody in the staffroom was interested in it meant that there was no loss of face...because it happens to everyone. What I was looking at was failure..I thought this might be a problem but the fact that it happens to everyone meant that almost every one stepped forward after we'd been talking about it. (Teacher 1)

One teacher commented that it was important to of ensure that colleagues were well-informed of the nature, purpose and proposed outcomes outcomes of the research if their co-operation was to be sought. Personal appearances by the researcher to explain the project were seen as crucial in gaining and maintaining colleagues' involvement:

> Also in terms of getting people to respond to questionnaires I would suggest that you give some kind of spiel at a meeting in person rather than just sending a memo...it goes down better if you have something outlined and I also offered to give a presentation of the results afterwards... I made the assignment itself available which a lot of the teachers read and I'm going to give a talk at another staff meeting afterwards.....People are very interested so I had the support of interested colleagues-it was very helpful. (Teacher 5)

"Hands-on" courses/workshops on research methods

Five of the teachers interviewed had attended formal courses or in-house workshops on action research methods before or concurrently with their research and found these to be very valuable in providing the necessary research tools:

> The Action Research course was what made me realize that it might be possible to approach this question at all....otherwise I think it would have been just one of those things that one shoved to the back of one's mind and just forgot about ...without having any means to carry it out. The course set out to give teachers the tools and show us what was possible. (Teacher 1)

One teacher commented, however, that workshops aimed at assisting teachers to carry out research needed to be very clearly focussed on specific research proposals.

There was an initial workshop where they gave some theoretical background and so on but I felt the workshop could have been a bit more directive and actually made suggestions for possible research and discussed the feasibility of our ideas. (Teacher 2)

Another teacher thought that workshops or courses on research methods should allow beginning researchers the opportunity to work through the research process in a step-by-step fashion:

.....I think what would have been nice as part of that course there to help me for example would be to do a range of smaller tasks.....that having one assignment at the end of the semester meant that people left things to the last generally speaking....and so smaller projects that broke down the whole process of doing research and doing a little mini-project where you'd come in and talk-you'd present it to a group of four or five as part of that course - would have been useful and would have developed my skills sooner I think so that I could have applied them as we were going through the course, at those initial stages certainly. (Teacher 6)

Institutional commitment

Several respondents commented on the role of the institution in encouraging research. One recurring theme was that if teachers were expected to undertake research on the institution's behalf, there had to be a commitment on the part of the institution that research was valued:

Within an institution that was luke-warm or not interested it would be difficult to do classroom-centred research. You need an institutional ethos that encourages research. (Teacher 1)

In this context, several teachers commented that the institution should provide adequate release time to carry out and write up research if this was expected in addition to their normal duties. One teacher thought that time to document research outcomes so they could be disseminated to a wider audience was particularly important:

You have to feel that there's going to be an audience...(If it's not published and disseminated) What on earth did we do it for? No-one's going to benefit from it. I mean we benefited from it but we didn't have to write it down to benefit from it. (Teacher 2)

A number of other suggestions were made concerning ways in which the institution could support research. These included the creation of research networks which would assist teachers to identify research questions and carry out their investigations:

If institutions could help people perhaps with suggestions as to where the current state of research or work in a particular area is, what people have been working on and what would be worth following up because you feel that you're working in a bit of a vacuum in that you just pluck a research question out of the air.... and where does it fit in with the rest of the world? (Teacher 2)

Accessible literature.

All of the respondents reported that they had found the academic literature very helpful, although two had found the reading they did in their area slightly inaccessible at first because of its technicality. Several highlighted the utility of state-of-the-art surveys in particular which they found helpful in narrowing the scope of their investigation:

We got a picture of the whole question and I think it helped us to be more systematic...to say that's not the area we want to look at. (Teacher 4)

The literature also provided useful models of the research process:

Once I had asked the question anyway I started doing some reading in that area... I found that very helpful because it gave me something..it gave me an idea of how to go about it..you know, how to try and set it up, seeing how somebody else had done such a thing. (Teacher 3)

What do Teachers See as the Main Benefits in Doing Research? How Does Undertaking Research Contribute to their Professional Growth?

Changes in attitudes and teaching practices

Four of the respondents reported that having done research had brought about a change both in their attitudes to learning and/or their teaching practice:

It's changed my attitude to the way I look at classrooms. I would not go for glib explanations for why someone did a particular thing, used a particular piece of language... (Teacher 1)

I've transferred a lot of what I've learnt into other areas of my teaching-so some of the things I learned about group work, steps in a task - I've really incorporated it in a lot of my teaching and I think it's been beneficial. I think it has stimulated students and so on... (Teacher 2)

My teaching has changed and students react to my teaching in a different way so they've become far more interested in their work, they want to learn, they want to learn, they want to come. So that has been as a result of me getting more involved which is as a result of that close involvement that you get through doing research. (Teacher 3)

Some teachers also considered that doing research had made them more reflective, analytical and questioning in their teaching behaviour:

I learned how to reflect on my teaching (Teacher 2)

Now I find everything that they do interesting (Teacher 3)

I'm much more suspicious of recipes for achieving things in the classroom. (Teacher 1)

Research skills and techniques

Most respondents reported that doing research had provided them with a range of useful skills and techniques, especially at the level of making sense out of complex classroom data. At a more general level, several reported that carrying out their project had made them more organized and systematic in their approach:

Having those students working in that way has been quite good to have that involvement from them. I think it's a result of my becoming so attentive to detail and to planning and I think that that came out of getting organized in that way as a result of the research...I mean I used to spend a lot of time before too but it definitely did make me become more conscious of exactly what was going on... (Teacher 3)

For this teacher, this increased systematicity was manifested in more attention to documentation and record-keeping:

Because I'm keeping records of anything they do which is a change from what they normally do or even what they're not doing..I guess they just feel that I'm right behind them working very closely with them and that also they are able...they can see what they're learning also because we talk about it and so this has made them very interested and just different in how they go about their work. (Teacher 3)

Growth in confidence

Three of the teachers reported that doing the research project and familiarizing themselves in-depth with the literature in a particular area had given

them confidence in their ability both to undertake further research and to better express and justify their views of teaching and learning:

(I now have) much greater confidence in being able to...articulate my ideas, thoughts, beliefs..because I think now that they're grounded much more in...relation to the reading that I've done, in relation to the project that I did...that I have some sort of evidence on which to base my beliefs or ...thoughts about some aspect of the course. So I think that is an important one, that I'm quite happy now to talk about that aspect of teacher education..that I feel much more confident as a professional to talk about it. (Teacher 6)

...It gives people a certain amount of confidence to be able to know that if one looks, patterns are observable, that...one can argue the case if someone comes in with a checklist. (Teacher 1)

Conclusions

Hitchcock and Hughes (1989:8) remark that "perhaps the most often heard observation about teacher research is that teachers invariably possess neither the skills nor the resources to carry out satisfactory and acceptable research." They go on, however, to point out that

our experience of working with teachers who have conducted small-scale school-based research and the products of teacher research now emerging suggest that teacher research can generate rich, illuminating, and important insights into the way in which we teach and learn in our society. These insights ought to have a crucial place in the formulation of policy and practice

The responses given by the teachers involved in this small study give strong support to this view. Teachers clearly can conduct research successfully if they are given the necessary support and the resources to carry it out. Experienced teachers in particular are well equipped to start since, as several of the respondents pointed out, they already possess a good deal of experiential knowledge. This is summed up by one teacher thus:

Practically speaking I knew a lot-I was very much involved in it as a practitioner. And so.. I mean.. I was quite confident that I had a good understanding of what was going on because I was actually involved in doing it. But then I sort of realized the further and further I got into it that that was on a different level...that experiential level and that there was a whole other level that I was really unaware of. And once I started reading the literature..then I realized.. gosh!..how much I didn't know about it all. And so...it was just completely different levels. I was operating at a practitioner level - I had that experiential....you know - those experiences that I based my beliefs and intuitions and things on...and

that...this other knowledge..this other body of work....that's in the body of literature, I didn't really delve deeply into once I started in that process...it raised lots of things. (Teacher 6)

The challenge for teacher educators is to harness this implicit knowledge and assist teachers to use their practice and their intuitions about it as a starting point for a more systematic and in-depth investigation which calls upon more formal research techniques. A blueprint for how this might happen is encapsulated in Teacher 1's advice to beginning researchers:

There's nothing wrong with having vague feelings, with having sort of feelings of uneasiness or rather ill-defined questions or doubts or interests in what one's doing in the classroom.... as long as one takes some time to narrow those down to something that's feasible as the focus of a research paper. I didn't just wake up one morning and all of a sudden this question occurred - as much time as I spent on doing the research and writing it up, I spent going through a process of gradually going from being troubled by something, asking around about it, finding out that apparently there wasn't very much, wondering what I could do about it, having to do something about it because of the assignment and then being put in a position where I had to define a research question..the purpose was provided by the assignment that I had to do and the course gave me some of the means to do it.

The accounts of the teachers in this study suggest that teacher educators who work in an institutional context can facilitate the research process in a number of ways. They can assist by providing teacher-researchers with initial support in framing research questions; by introducing them to research tools and methods which allow them to work through their own questions in a step by step fashion; by being available for consultation throughout the research process; by setting up research partnerships and/or networks as appropriate; by making sure that they are given due recognition for the time and effort expended; and by assisting with the publication and/or dissemination of the results of teacher-conducted research. If research can happen in this collaborative way, then the outcomes of teacher-conducted research have a greater likelihood of reaching the audience of fellow practitioners for whom it is primarily intended.

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PROGRAM ACCREDITATION THROUGH INSTITUTIONAL SELF-STUDY AND PEER VALIDATION

M. Soenardi Djiwandono

The Background

As an independent country Indonesia is relatively young (independent since 1945, less than 50 years ago). For the young country development is urgent and indispensible. Unfortunately, in its efforts to develop itself and catch up with the developments of the rest of the world the country is confronted with a great number of problems in a variety of fields of various kinds and magnitudes. To name just a few of them, first of all physically and geographically the country is a very large country that is widely scattered in the equatorial area, comprising thousands of islands (approximately 13,500 islands). Secondly, in terms of population, with a rate of growth of around 2%, the country is still the fifth biggest in the world. (It has actually become the fourth due to the de-unification of the USSR). And thirdly, to make the situation more intricate, the enormous population is far from evenly distributed. The island of Java that is only 7% of the total area, is occupied by about 90 million people, which is more than half the total population, making it one of the most heavily populated islands in the world. All of those facts, along with many others, have created major problems in the management of many of the affairs that the country has to face, including problems in education.

In the field of education the dominating issue has been, and still is or is going to be, numerical and quantitative in the first place. For want of better education as a consequence of independence and need for development, more and more children want or need to go to school. And as the population grows and keeps on growing the number of children has been increasing, too, extensively. The result has literally been an explosion in the size of the student population. In the period between 1945 and 1989, for example, the student population was dramatically multiplied in all levels of education in a consistently increasing magnitude at the higher levels. At the primary school level the growth was from 2.5 to 30 million (12 times), the lower secondary from 90,000 to 6.6 million (74 times), the upper secondary from 18,000 to 4.1 million (230 times), and tertiary education from a mere 1,600 to 1.6 million (1000 times).[1] As one of the consequences of those figures reflecting the incredible numerical development of the student population, the demand for resources to provide proper education is enormous, including the

demand for more teachers who have to be recruited and trained properly, and speedily.

In such an emergency context it should not be too difficult to imagine nor too surprising to see that the training of teachers of a variety of subjects including English, has most likely been conducted in an emergency manner, too. In such a context a greater emphasis and priority may have been given to numerical and administrative factors rather than, and at the unavoidable expense of, qualitative and more professional considerations. This has undoubtedly affected and sacrificed many of the activities that otherwise need to be done in education including its evaluation and accreditation to determine the actual worth and quality of education. An initial attempt in that direction was the main concern of the study summarized in this paper, specifically a study for the accreditation of teacher education in Indonesia through instituional self-study and peer validation.[2]

The Objectives and Characteristics

The study was officially initiated in 1987 by the Directorate General of Higher Education as an implementation and elaboration of the result of a similar study of a much smaller scale conducted several years earlier in a more local setting. Considering the weaknesses and inadequacies of the accreditation programs typically applied in the field of education in Indonesia including teacher education, the main objective of the study was "to create foundations for a national accreditation process" by establishing "a set of commonly agreed standards by which institutions could be evaluated". Related to and as a result of that, the other objective was to "establish a baseline for continued institutional development for the participating institutions".[3]

Basically the study was conducted along the line of a model that was developed by NCATE and redesigned in 1985 to be used for accrediting "professional educational units that prepare educators in US colleges and universities".[4] Naturally some modification and adaptation were made to suit the needs and conditions prevalent in Indonesia, especially in relation to the standards and their indicators as well as the final action following the accreditation process. Unlike the application of NCATE model, in this study no attempt was made at this stage to actually notify a participating institute of its accreditation status. Instead at the end of the study a set of suggestions and recommendations were given to a participating institute for a serious consideration in its planning for development.

An important characteristic of the accreditation procedure in the study was its main concern in what was more directly involved in and relevant to the process and implementation of the educational program. This was a significant departure from what was typical in the practices of evaluation and accreditation procedures in the country that, more often than not, were focused more on the static matters of administration, finance and organization. Another important characterisitic of the study was the active role given to, or rather required of, the participating institutes. An institute, that is an IKIP or Institute of Teacher Training and Education, wanting to participate in the program was required to submit a proposal describing a plan for the implementation of an accreditation process of itself. The plan was written following an outline and directives prescribed by a committee at the national level in charge of planning and coordinating the entire program. This plan was to be used later, if accepted, to make a thorough study of itself to produce its own institutional profile which was why the study was first of all characterized as an institutional self-study.

Another important characteristic was reflected in the step that was an integral part of the study, following and complementing the institutional self-study. At this stage the profile of an institute describing the states, characteristics and worth of many of its aspects that had previously been prepared through its institutional self-study, was checked and verified by a team of validators. These validators were recruited from faculty members from participating institutes (or peers) other than the institute whose profile was being verified, characterizing the study further as institutional self-study with peer validation.

In other words the study was conducted as an attempt to develop a mechanism by which the worth, primarily academic worth, of an educational program notably teacher education, can be assessed and accredited. In the study a serious and sincere intention of an institute to participate was crucial and prerequisite for its inclusion in the accreditation study. That is why a participating institute was required to make a proposal outlining the plan of the study to describe and evaluate many aspects of its educational programs and to produce its own profile. And finally for a more objective and accurate evaluation, a team of faculty members of peer institutes made a verification of the profile in a peer validation scheme.

The Organization

As a national project the study was initiated, organized and coordinated at the national level by the "Project for the Development of Teacher Training Institutes", an *ad hoc* working unit subordinated to the Directorate General of Higher Education, Department of Education and Culture, in Jakarta. The general responsibility of this unit was to coordinate various kinds of activities for the development of the existing teacher training colleges in training and producing high school teachers of a variety of subjects. These teacher training colleges may either be Schools of Teacher Education attached to universities, known as FKIPs, or independent Institutes of Teacher Training and Education popularly referred to as IKIPs. At this developmental stage of the study only five out of ten existing IKIPs took part involving 25 departments of 11 major studies.[5] Three of those participating departments were English departments of IKIP Yogyakarta, Surabaya and Malang. The limited number of the participating institutes was not only caused by the fact that the resources available to support the national project was limited but also due to the un-readiness of the other institutes to participate.

To carry out the study a national committee was appointed consisting of faculty members of some of the IKIPs. This committee was responsible for the coordination of the entire study from the beginning stage to the end, including preparing and writing the overall plan of the study, disseminating the basic principles and ideas about the study, preparing a set of manuals and instruments, setting up standards and procedures, determining the participating institutes, recruting and training validators and, finally, writing the final report of the entire study.

For the execution at the level of the individual institutes a local committee was appointed by the rector of each of the participating institutes. The local committee was basically responsible for the implementation of the institutional self-study to produce the institutional profile of itself and of each of its participating departments. For this reason the local committee appointed the departments, recruited and trained profile writers, and coordinated the actual writing of the profiles as well as scheduled and organized meetings with the validators coming from other institutes for their validation work. For more successful and credible results of the study the appointment of faculty members in the local committee was based primarily on their expertise and capability in addition to their sincere will and ample time to participate actively. To be a profile writer of a department one was required to be a full-time faculty member of the department having the relevant academic background.

Similar requirements were set up in the recruitment and appointment of validators. They were faculty members of similar academic background to what they were assigned to validate having the significant academic authority more than just administrative seniority. Of course for a more objective performance a validator was only assigned to conduct validation outside his own institute. Altogether 29 validators were recruited from nine IKIPs including some from non-participating institutes.

The Instruments

Two sets of instruments were developed and used in the study: one for collecting data for the writing of institutional profile, and another for conducting validation of the profile by the validators. In the first set of instruments a series of four manuals were prepared. The first, designated as Book 0, contains a general description of the study and introduction of the main ideas behind it including the basic concepts, the organization, the instruments and the procedures in which the study was to be conducted. Book I "The Standards of Teacher Training Institutes" describes the standards to be used to produce the institutional profile in terms of six major components, namely (1) the organization and management of the institute (2) the curriculum (3) practice teaching or internship program (4) the teaching staff (5) the students, and (6) the facilities.[6] Each component is described briefly in Book I showing its role and function in the implementation of the educational programs, and subdivided into several sub-components containing elaboration of the main component. Another brief description is made of each component along with a list of relevant indicators for use in checking whether or not a standard has been met.

Book II: "The Manual for the Application and Use of the Standards" specifies the manner in which the standards are to be used to check the actual implementation of the educational program. Following the same order in which the components and subcomponents with their indicators appear in Book I, this manual describes in detail how the indicators are to be checked and verified to determine the worth or quality of the (sub)components in comparison to the standards. The description, therefore, includes the source or reference of the information, the technique to obtain the information, the qualitative evaluation of the findings, and the score indicating the quantitative evaluation of the finding ranging from the score of 5 (the highest) to 1. In the final step of the evaluation of a (sub)component, an average score can be obtained from scores of its relevant indicators. This average score is to be converted, qualitatively, into one of three levels, namely (1) score 5 = completely in accordance with the standard (2) scores between 3.76 and 4.99 = approaching the standard (3) less than 3.76 = below the standard.

Book III is the "Manual for Writing the Institutional Profile". This manual gives directions about how the profile is to be written to record and describe the findings of the institutional self-study as a result of careful and critical observations of itself and application of the standards and their indicators specified in Book I and Book II. The description of each indicator is to be made complete and specific including the score reflecting the institution's own evaluation of its worth in relation to a certain (sub)component.

As the set of manuals containing description of the general aspects of the study (including the general principles and background, the standards of teacher training institutes in Indonesia, their indicators and how to use them, and the manual for writing the profile), the first set of instruments was developed by the Project as the national coordinating body. The other instruments for collecting data to make the institutional profile were left to the participating institutes to develop for their own use. The important thing was that the profile be written following the prescribed principles and directions on the basis of critical observation and evaluation of the existing facts.

The Instituional Self-Study

The final product of institutional self-study, as it has been described earlier, was the institutional profile containing detailed description and self evaluation of the institute in terms of the six major components. This was done by analyzing the data obtained and collected in different ways from different sources by using the istruments that had been developed following the standards and directions discussed in the previous section.

As specified in Book II: "The Manual for the Application and Use of the Standards", the data were to be obtained from various sources including respondents and/or documents. The data from respondents were mostly obtained in written form in response to a set of written questions and requests given to them for the purpose. Some other data were collected through interviews. The respondents were those in the campus who were in the relevant positions to give information relevant to the concern of the study including officials holding different kinds of administrative functions such as rector, deans, heads of departments, heads of administrative units, faculty members, and also students. Meanwhile documents referred to in the study included government regulations, various manuals, calendars, curriculums, and a variety of plans and reports, syllabuses etc.

Following standard procedures of coding and tabulating the data were analyzed using simple calculation of frequencies and percentages from which scores for certain aspects could be derived. For other aspects with qualitative information the scores were obtained by comparing the information with the standards before converting it into a score. The summary of all this factual information about different aspects of an institute or department, and the scores assigned to them, made up the institutional profile as it was perceived by the institute itself.

The Peer Validation

This part of the study was conducted following the institutional self-study. For this purpose a team of validators from outside the institute being validated came to the campus and stayed for a couple of days. Equipped with the profiles of the departments and facilitated by their peers from the host institute the validators were engaged in validation activities: reading documents, visiting places, observing activities, and even talking to some sample respondents including faculty members and students. Through a series of direct observations, interviews and discussions with respondents the validators were able to determine whether or not the descriptions of the (sub)components were correct and acceptable, and the assigned scores accurate.

Following the direct observations, "investigations" and interviews, a series of conferences were held between the visiting validators on one side and the profile writers of the host institute on the other. In these meetings the findings of the validators were discussed, including the discrepancies that may have been observed. From these discussions some modifications of the descriptions and the scores were agreed to make the profiles more realistic and representative of the actual situation. Notes, suggestions and recommendations were also included for possible improvements. In fact the final part of the entire validation process was the formal signing of a document recording those findings and notes by representatives of the visiting team of validators and the host institute.

A Sample Profile

To provide an illustration of the process by which an institutional profile and some of its main contents were prepared, a reference can be made of the profile of the English department of IKIP Malang, one of three English departments participating in the study.[7] The profile was part of the product of a one-year institutional self-study conducted at IKIP Malang from April 1987 to April 1988.[8]

In the profile a general description of the department was presented in the beginning to provide general information such as historical background, various academic programs, curriculum, number of students (408 in 1988), number and academic qualifications of full-time faculty members (43 in 1988 with five professors and 12 doctors) etc. A description was also made of how the institutional self-study had been conducted including the groups of respondents including a group of 39 out of 43 faculty members, a sample group of 31 students, the instruments used for different groups of respondents, the collection and analysis of data, etc.

But the main content of the profile was a detailed description of the department in terms of the six major components and their sub-components. For each sub-component a description was written and a score was assigned to indicate its relative position to the standards prescribed in Book II. Through a closer examination of the profile and a simple calculation to obtain the averages of the scores, all of the components were found to be of the same level of qualification, i.e. the second level of "approaching the standard".[9] Of course the actual averages were not necessarily the same but each of them was invariably comparable to the upper half of the second level of qualification with scores ranging from 3.76 to 4.99. The complete list of scores of all of the components and their equivalent levels is as follows: (1) Organization and Management with 3 subcomponents and 17 indicators, average score: 4.7 (2) Curriculum with 5 subcomponents and 18 indicators, average score: 4.6 (3) Practice Teaching or Internship with four subcomponents and 22 indicators, average score: 4.8 (4) Faculty with four subcomponents and 18 indicators, average score: 4.5 (5) Students with five subcomponents and 27 indicators, average score: 4.5, and (6) Facilities with eight indicators, average score: 4.1.

However, in the summary of profiles of three participating English departments more details of the profile of English department of IKIP Malang were available.[10] In the summary it is shown that actually out of a list of 19 subcomponents eight reached the maximum level of qualification (level 3: "completely in accordance with the standards"), eight others reached the second level ("approaching the standards"), and only three were at the lowest level of qualification ("below the standard"). These three low quality subcomponents were especially related to teaching materials of the curriculum component, and faculty. Apparently the textbooks and references used in the English department of IKIP Malang were not up-to-date according to the standard used (more than five years old) and most of them had to be obtained from abroad. Meanwhile the average level of involvement of faculty members in the five kinds of activities required of them was found to be low. The five activities were teaching, research, community

service, participation in campus development program, administration and management.

Through another [illegible]r look at the profile, however, it was found out that in terms of eight subcomponents the maximum level of qualification (average score 3) was reached for each subcomponent, indicating the highest quality of their conditions. These subcomponents were (1) organization (2) relevance and elaborate description of curriculum (3) academic qualification and number of faculty members (4) faculty development program (5) availability and proper use of students' plans of study (6) observance of students' regular attendance (7) students' participation in extra-curricular activities, and (8) availability and proper use of special facilities (language laboratory). Apparently neither of the other two participating English departments reached that level in any of the subcomponents. The rest of the subcomponents were at the second level of qualification ("approaching the standards"), including (9) administration (10) academic programs (11) the use of syllabuses (12) teaching-learning activities (13) in-campus teaching practice programs (14) internship program (15) faculty's efforts and realization of responsibilities, and (16) faculty's practice in evaluating students' progress.

The Results

At the completion of the entire peer validation activities in December 1988 a conference was held at the national committee level to make a comprehensive review of the study and to synthesize the results. To share and disseminate the results of the study further another national conference was organized involving not only committee members but also authorities and functionaries at the level of Directorate General of Higher Education and rectors of all the ten government IKIPs in the country. With reference to the objectives of the study set up in the beginning, some of the main results identified in the conference include the following:

The Study

1. In general an enthusiastic response to the accreditation study was noted as a means to find ways for improving the quality of educational programs. Some of the findings reflected in the profiles helped people realize, sometimes with a shock, the existing discrepancies between the reality and the standards that need to be reached.

2. Some indicators were not clearly or sufficiently identified and described, sometimes creating misunderstandings and different interpretations.

3. The time alloted for peer validation (four days) was found insufficient for conducting a thorough verification of the profile.

4. Not all members of the institute being verified had a sufficient knowledge and degree of familiarity with some of the details of the institutional profile.

5. More appropriate standards and criteria for acceptable references and bibliography need to be formulated.

The Organization and Management

1. Documents and references related to academic programs and activities were limited and sketchy in the department level.

2. Formal requirements of functionaries tend to be more compromised at the lower levels of faculty and department than at the institute level.

3. There was a general tendency of reluctance to express opinions and make evaluation of others, especially those of higher positions than oneself.

4. Flow of communication was mostly one way, usually from top down.

5. Although the institutional structure and organization of various units was generally in accordance with the existing system, the actual mechanism of many activities was not always explicitly prescribed.

The Curriculum

1. In the curriculum there was apparently no agreement in how the major components were to be distributed. Each of the major components: basic and general subjects, education subjects, teaching-learning process subjects, specified subjects, was not necessarily alloted the same number of credits at different institutes.

2. In the specified subjects group not enough options were offered as elective subjects.

3. There was no easy agreement about the interpretation and application of the concept of hierarchy in the specified subjects group to set up a system of prerequisites.

4. Most institutes faced common problems and difficulties in regularly updating their teaching materials prescribed in the curriculum.

5. Giving regular feedback to students was not found to be a common practice among many faculty members.

Practice Teaching or Internship

1. The concept and practice for limited teaching skills of the type of micro-teaching was still marked with diverse understanding and interpretation.

2. The program was not always conducted as a continuous activity uninterrupted by other academic programs.

3. There was a general lack of and difficulties in obtaining appropriate schools for internship program. This was due to the increasing number of IKIP students and the potentially negative effects of practice teaching program on the schools and their students.

4. Although a student-teacher was, officially, under the guidance of both an IKIP supervising faculty member and a class teacher, in most cases only the latter could give a regular guidance.

The Faculty

1. There was a disproportionate number of faculty members in comparison with the number of students.

2. Faculty development programs were marked more with upgrading programs than with systematic, professional development activities of the junior by the senior members.

3. Not enough efforts had been attempted for the establishment of a solid coordination between IKIPs and high schools for a systematic integration between theoretical knowledge and practical application of educational principles and practices. A similar lack of cooperation was noted in relation to non-educational institutions for more grounded and up-to-date orientation in various fields of study.

4. In general considerable discrepancy was noted in the average number of teaching hours among faculty members, ranging from 3 to 28 credit hours per semester.

5. Feedback mechanism was not adequately employed both from students to faculty members and among faculty members themselves.

Students

1. The requirements for students to make an overall and comprehensive plan for study was not consistently implemented in all IKIPs. Modifications of students' plans was carried out differently, too, in terms of when and how to do it.

2. The guidance and counseling practices varied a great deal in department as well as institute levels.

3. The GPA at the end of a student's study was not computed properly, disregarding the possibility that some courses may have been taken more than one time.

Facilities

1. The main concern was the minimum office facilities available to faculty members to do their work in the campus.

Conclusions

It may still be a long way for educational leaders and administrators in Indonesia to establish methods of accrediting their educational programs most effectively, but concrete initial steps have been taken through this study. Hopefully follow-up steps will be taken for the improvements of education, particularly teacher education including langauage teacher education. That will at least be one

step closer to and more in accordance with the aspiration of educators everywhere as reflected in the second mission of NCATE "to encourage institutions to meet rigorous academic standards of excellence in professional education".[11]

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Notes

(1) See Raka Joni, T., *Creating the Foundation for National Accreditation of Teacher Training Programs in Indonesia*, Paper presented at the 23rd Annual Meeting of the Cooperative and International Education Society, Harvard Graduate School of Education, March 31 - April 1, 1989, Cambridge, Massachusetts, p.6.

(2) Most of what is presented in this paper is based on a series of reports of a national study under the chairmanship and coordination of Dr T Raka Joni, in his capacity as former director of the then *Project for the Development of Teacher Training Institutes* of the Directorate General of Higher Education, Ministry of Education, Jakarta, Indonesia. Unless stated otherwise most of the details and information about the study presented in this paper refer to the series and sources referred to at the end of this paper. In the study the author of this paper was acting as one of the validators for the accreditation of English department program.

(3) See Raka Joni, Op. cit., p.17

(4) See NCATE or National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, *NCATE Redesign*, Document prepared by Committee on Process and Evaluation and Committee on Standards, the Subcommittee of NCATE, and adopted by NCATE Council, Washington, D.C., 1985.

(5) The five IKIPs were IKIP Padang, IKIP Bandung, IKIP Yogyakarta, IKIP Surabaya, and IKIP Malang comprising 25 departments of 11 different major studies in the education of Mathematics, Chemistry, Biology, Physics, Geography, Business, English, Indonesian, Electrical Engineering, and Sports.

(6) As a comparison it can be noted that NCATE's standards address five areas, namely (1) knowledge base for professional education (2) relationship to the world of practice (3) students (4) faculty, and (5) governance and resources.

(7) The other two English departments were of IKIP Yogyakarta and IKIP Surabaya.

(8) See Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan, Direktorat Jendral Pendidikan Tinggi, *Profil Jurusan Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris IKIP Malang*, Laporan Penelitian Institusi/Validasi Sejawat, Jakarta: 1988.

(9) A small number of scores were presented separately as appendices outside the profile and were not available at the time when this paper was prepared.

(10) See Departemen Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan, Direktorat Jenderal Pendidikan Tinggi, P2LPTK, *Laporan Hasil Penyelenggaraan Rintisan Kegiatan Penelitian Institusi dan Validasi Sejawat*, Jakarta, 1989, p.90.

(11) See NCATE, Op.cit., p. 1.

FROM ENGLISH TO FILIPINO: TRAINING TEACHERS FOR THE GREAT SHIFT IN SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE PHILIPPINES

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Introduction

When the Department of Education in the Philippines decided to adopt a bilingual education scheme in 1974, one of the most formidable problems that it faced was to train teachers for the shift from English to Filipino as the medium of instruction in Social Studies, first at the elementary school level, subsequently at the secondary school level. It presribed a ten-year time-table, giving non-Tagalog speaking regions a grace-period of four years (1974-1978) to implement the program.

The shift was to be completed from a monolingual (in English) system to a bilingual one (Filipino and English) in ten years (1974-1984) (see Gonzalez and Sibayan 1988). Under the bilingual education scheme, Mathematics, Science and Communication Arts in English would be taught in English; all other subjects would be taught in Tagalog-based Filipino, the national language. The most important content-area subject in the curriculum under the domain of Filipino was Social Studies (*Araling Panlipunan*). The rest of the content-area subjects were in the performing arts (music, art education, physical education, work education) and in Communication Arts in Filipino. The shift in the performing arts was relatively easy since it meant switching to the everyday language used as a lingua franca in giving instructions in these classes; since the classes involved were elementary classes, with the implementation year-by-year, the efforts needed for the shift were relatively easy to educe. Far more difficult was the task of teaching Social Studies in Filipino, from English.

The purpose of this paper is to describe the experience of the last eighteen years in making this shift, especially in the Department's efforts at pre-service and in-service training of Social Studies teachers who would henceforth use Filipino as the medium of instruction in their content teaching.

The problems arose not only from the shift but the status of development of Filipino itself as a language of content teaching (see Philippine Journal of Linguistics 1988 issue on the subject of the intellectualization of Filipino).

A similar experience of difficulty and various attempts or strategies at meeting such a difficulty may be found in other countries which have shifted to a bilingual or monolingual scheme in the local language.

Were the language towards which teaching was to be shifted a fully developed language (for example, in bilingual schemes in Canada involving two developed languages, English and French, and in the United States, English and Spanish, among others), the difficulties would have been minimized. The problem involved the shift to a language which was in itself in a process of development as an intellectualized language or a language of scholarly discourse.

The Philippine experience thus has far wider implications beyond the country, for similar problems have undoubtedly arisen for Indonesia and Malaysia using Bahasa Indonesia and Bahasa Malaysia, respectively; one foresees the same problem arising in the Indo-Chinese states (Cambodia, Vietnam and Laos) if local official languages are used for education instead of French.

Based on the Philippine experience, some insights may be gained for applications in teacher training in countries undergoing rapid political and social evolution.

The Philippine Experience

When the Department of Education of the Republic of the Philippines promulgated Department Order No. 25, series 1974, calling for the teaching of Social Studies in Tagalog-based Filipino in Grade One, with the program continuing each year thereafter and expanding to higher grades, the most pressing needs for the implementation of the program were the production of teaching materials in Filipino in what was then known as Pilipino and the training of teachers to switch from English to Pilipino in the medium for social studies (see Gonzalez 1984).

In addition to seminars being held all over the country informing teachers in the field about the new policy, special seminars and workshops were held for the teaching of social studies in Pilipino. These workshops consisted for the most part

of demonstration lessons in addition to information sessions on the requirements of the new bilingual education scheme.

Other than the lack of materials for a large number of students, materials which began to be written during the workshops mentioned and circulated through mimeographed notes, there were few teacher problems in Tagalog areas since teachers easily shifted from English to Pilipino in the teaching of social studies at the primary school level (Grades 1 to 4).

Prior to the 1974 scheme and independently of it, the Marcos Government, based on a survey of the entire educational system in 1969 and reported in 1970 (PCSPE 1970), contracted a large World Bank loan to improve the educational system. A very important component of this loan was the production of textbooks in all subjects and all grades (from Grade One to Fourth Year High School) to an extent where there would be one book for every two pupils (from what was then the sad state of one book per ten pupils). With the 1974 bilingual education scheme, the social studies textbooks (initially written in English up to approximately Grade 4) had to be translated and adapted into Filipino. There was thus a time-lag between the implementation of the program and the provision of teaching materials in Filipino in the Social Studies area because of the switch; mimeographed notes on a district basis, done by the teachers, had to be used or materials in English continued to be used with the classes conducted in Filipino.

An interim evaluation on program implementation throughout the country, now divided into regions for administrative purposes, was carried out in 1978 through a national conference (see Gonzalez 1979) to receive oral reports from Supervisors of Pilipino and Social Studies on the status of implementation. In the Tagalog speaking regions, implementation was going on even ahead of schedule in the sense that in some districts, Filipino was already being used beyond Grade 4. In others, especially in non-Tagalog regions, the implementation was behind schedule; in some schools (especially private schools), implementation had not yet even begun; and in Cebuano-speaking areas, especially Cebu itself, there was resistance to implementation.

Designated as centers for teacher training on the use of Filipino as the medium of instruction was Philippine Normal College (now Philippine Normal University), a state teacher training institution, and National Teachers College, a private institution--both in Manila. Local and regional workshops at various levels continued to be carried out (see Gonzalez 1984 for a review of evaluative studies of implementation of the program in various areas of the country).

The biggest limitation in these teacher training programs, consisting for the most part of three or five-day workshops, was that there was no clear-cut methodology or strategy on exactly how the shift was to be brought about most efficiently and with the least amount of inconvenience for both pupils and above all for teachers, some of whom did not feel sufficiently confident to make the switch.

The training sessions consisted of the following: lectures on the policy itself and its requirements; demonstration lessons by linguistically talented teachers who knew both the subject matter and were versatile in using Filipino as a medium of instruction; the preparation of lesson plans and materials in Filipino which were then circulated throughout the district or the division.

The basic problem in the training program was that it had no theoretical underpinnings but was a case of 'learning by doing'. Under the circumstances, this was probably the only way to conduct the training since there were no precedents in the country for the shift. What different applied linguists called for in various forums was the beginning of a research project to discover the components of a theoretical model. In addition, as the summative evaluation of the program after 11 years advised (see Gonzalez and Sibayan 1988), a research program on dovetailing and syllabi for English and Filipino would avoid needless repetition and make room for more advanced work; a teaching guide with materials and with a theoretical framework was likewise suggested for the teaching of Filipino to non-Tagalogs. Although the Department of Education, Culture and Sports (DECS) received these recommendations with an open mind and even constituted a permanent Bilingual Education Monitoring Group at DECS, including a promise of a special item in the budget for these projects, other priorities soon took over and more pressing tasks for the DECS administrators multiplied, relegating the projects to dormancy.

In the meantime, after 1974, two new projects of DECS took place, again with funding from foreign agencies: an attempt to improve elementary education by streamlining the curriculum and reducing the subjects; subsequently under a new Secretary, values education was likewise stressed as part of the content of a program known as Program for Decentralized Educational Development (PRODED). This involved a rewriting of textbooks for Grades 1 to 6 and most important of all, a heavy teacher training component on how to use these materials. Subsequently, as a continuation of PRODED, a Secondary Education Development Program (SEDP) was likewise started, again with a simplification of the secondary school curriculum, materials for the curricular change, and teacher training. Initially the teacher training component involved both public and private schools; eleven days of training for private school teachers and twenty days for public school teachers. The program has been curtailed to fifteen days in 1992 (See DECS 1992).

At the secondary level, where the problems of transition to Filipino from English for the teaching of Philippine History and Government, Asian History and Civilization, Basic Economics, and World History and Civilization were much greater because of the special register needed for these subjects, the training programs stressed content more than methodology and in effect consisted of imparting content on the new textbooks by way of a regular class for teachers, with opportunities for translating what they had learned into actual lesson plans and modules for the students. However, in the case of economics, because of the inability of some of the university-based economics professors to lecture in Filipino, the content teaching had to be done in English -- a step which was really going against the successful implementation of the new program in economics from the point of view of building language competence in an intellectualized variety of Filipino for the content area.

Based on survey data gathered in the Bilingual Education Scheme evaluation (conducted in 1985 but reported officially by a 1988 publication: Gonzalez and Sibayan 1988), and confirmed by later informal reports, there is still much use of English going on in the teaching of the social sciences at the secondary level, especially in a quantitatively oriented subject like Economics. Other schools attempting to implement the program according to exact specifications use a code-switching strategy for language use in the classrooms. Materials are now slowly coming to the market for the private sector for history, Asian civilization, World History (in Filipino), but there is thus far only one Economics book in Filipino in the market, with a second one in press. In the private sector, not all the SEDP books have been printed; circulation is still a problem. The teacher re-training (in-service) goes on during mid-term vacations and during the long vacation, now reduced to three weeks.

In pre-service training programs for teachers, where the recommendation was made by the evaluators in 1988 to use Filipino as the medium of instruction for the content subjects in Social Studies especially for those teachers planning to become social studies/social science teachers, there has been little implementation because of the reluctance of senior faculty to make the switch. This is the situation at present even at the premier teacher training institution in the country, the Philippine Normal University. The problem is compounded in non-Tagalog regions, where professors in colleges of education teaching social sciences plead inability to use Filipino as the medium of instruction in their courses because they are non-Tagalogs.

The only university in the Philippines which has started a program of eventually using Filipino as the medium of instruction for all undergraduate courses that are not language subjects is the University of the Philippines (Diliman Campus), which set for itself a time-table of five years (1987-1992). A Center for Language (Sentro ng Wika) has been established with a full-time staff to encourage and assist university teachers in the use of Filipino as the medium of instruction in their subjects. In addition to short-term seminars of an informational nature, the Center has been using the following means: encouragement of textbook writing using Filipino; word lists, newsletters, translations and research projects. The actual training of the professors has not yet been implemented. The pace of implementation has slowed down recently, with the 1992 target seemingly an unrealistic one. Undoubtedly the time table will have to be modified and the original deadline extended.

Practical Insights from the Philippine Experience:

The Need for a Theoretical Model for Re-training Teachers for the Shift from the Use of English to Filipino.

The training of teachers thus far in the Philippines, both at the pre-service and in-service stages, with regard to the shift of Filipino from English in the social sciences has been a matter of 'feel' or groping for a methodology without a theory. This problem is not unique to the Philippines and was faced earlier by Indonesia and Malaysia when they switched to the use of Bahasa Indonesia/Malaysia as the medium of instruction from the colonial languages, Dutch/English. A similar problem occurred at Nanyang University when its professors had to switch from Mandarin to English. It is a problem being faced by Bilingual Education Schemes in the United States where certain subjects have to be taught by ethnic American-Hispanics in Spanish when they were teaching the same subject matter originally in English.

The main difference between the Western experience and the experiences of the Philippines and Indonesia/Malaysia is that in the West, when there was a shift, it was usually a shift from one developed language to another with the target language at the same level of modernization and intellectualization as the original language because of the target language's wide use in the mother country or elsewhere as an intellectualized language. One thinks of the shift from English to French in Montreal's bilingual scheme or the shift from English to Spanish in North American bilingual schemes.

The situation is not the same for Bahasa Indonesia/Malaysia and Filipino and for that matter, Guarani in Paraguay or Quechua in Bolivia, since here we are moving from a modernized intellectualized language albeit a second or foreign one to a local one which is still undergoing modernization and intellectualization.

We are thus dealing with two problems simultaneously: the problem of shifting from one code to another and the more difficult problem of modernizing the language to which one is shifting, at the same time, since the two languages being switched are not at the same level of modernization and intellectualization.

Modernizing a Language

Far more difficult than merely shifting from a source language to a target language (even if the target language in this case is an indigenous language or even one which the teacher speaks as a native speaker), is the modernization of the target language, since in the case of newly developing languages such as Filipino and Malay, the standardized variety of the language is still in the process of formation; usually the colloquial or informal variety of the language is the one that one learns as a first language speaker. Yet what is needed is what Sibayan (1989) calls a pedagogical idiom, in this case, of Filipino.

The pedagogical idiom is that variety needed for classroom use or the use of language beyond merely the expressive and persuasive one for person-to-person interaction. It has to do with what Buhler (1934) calls the 'demonstrative function' or what M.A.K. Halliday (1975) calls the 'ideational function' of language to transmit information. The information in turn is not merely factual but a well organized body of knowledge presented in logical sequence, with its mode or argumentation and the dominant paradigm of the discipline being assumed. Included here are what Bruner (1988) calls the operational principles of a particular subject of specialization and the prevailing conceptual structure of the discipline.

The pedagogical idiom thus involves not only the every-day language of classroom management, metalinguistic functional forms for moving the argument to the next stage and for signalling the beginning or ending of a topic, but a register-specific pedagogical idiom for a particular discipline, in this case, the social studies disciplines (interdisciplinary at the elementary level) and social sciences such as history, political science, economics, and cultural anthropology for the specific subjects prescribed in the Secondary Education Development Program (SEDP) Curriculum in the Philippines.

For such registers, one needs not only necessary terminology (a task that the Institute of National Language has done borrowing from the model of *istilahs* by the Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka of Malaysia) but what Gonzalez (in press) has termed a 'reconceptualization' of the subject matter consisting of translation and restatement using basic concepts of the discipline and step by step build-up. In transformational terms, of the 1957 and 1965 vintage, one envisages breaking down the discourse into kernel sentences and then recombining these kernels into more complex structures in the new language, in this case, Filipino. This includes not only the full exploitation of the grammar of the language (morphology and syntax and even phonological units in some cases for mnemonic and onomatopoeic effects if the register calls for such effects) but likewise its discourse structure since what one is creating is texts and not merely sentences or even paragraphs.

Gonzalez (in press) has hypothesized that this reconceptualization is really the same process as translation except that in translation from developed languages, one already has the terminology and the rhetorical and register models. In the translation necessary for shifting from one language to another in teaching, if the target language is not a fully modernized one, one has the burden of searching for suitable terminology, sentential structures and discourse forms and the added burden of prior simplification. One must assume a zero language register at the beginning of the discourse and build up bit by bit. The first problem to solve is to select which terms to use since there is as yet no consensus among specialists in the discipline as to which terms are to be accepted; idiosyncratic coinages and creations are being circulated for currency by their proponents or word-makers. Moreover, beyond mere lexical creation, the modernization of a language and its intellectualization demand the creation of a register in Filipino for a special field. Sociologists of knowledge who have observed the process of the build-up of a discipline tell us that before such a register builds up, one needs a group of 'significant others' who interact with a leader to create texts in the discipline. Terminology must be accepted, a paradigm for the field adopted, and everyone in the circle of 'significant others' provides the *detaillisme* necessary for filling out the paradigm and eventually changing it if enough anomalies are uncovered (see Kuhn 1970 for an account of a typical paradigm shift). In the meantime, there is constant exchange of publications which are then read and accepted with their terminology and their working assumptions, hypotheses and conclusions, so that a school of thought is created among the group. If the same activity is going on elsewhere, then one will have different schools of thought which can then interact with each other to hasten the process of text build-up or corpus planning, during scholarly meetings and seminars. In turn, graduates belonging to a particular school of thought can propagate the findings and hypotheses of their respective schools by obtaining academic appointments in other centers, thus creating a wave-like effect to

disseminate their findings. This process takes time and talent especially as it depends on the presence of a charismatic intellectual leader who can gather disciples around him to propagate his findings.

In the Philippines, in the field of psychology, there was a period when Sikolohiyang Pilipino (Filipino Psychology) was in this state of ferment among the students of Professor Virgilio Enriquez at the Department of Psychology of the University of the Philippines. The school flourished in the 1970's and created a body of scholarly literature in Filipino which is still consulted and talked about, but it seems to have lost its momentum when Enriquez gave up the leadership of this group (see Enriquez and Marcelino) 1984.

The same kind of ferment for other disciplines, including social science disciplines, has not been found, since scholars in these other areas still carry on their intellectual discourse in English.

Reconceptualizing the Content of the Discipline in the New Language (Filipino)

The second major task of the teacher in this shift from English to Filipino, is to reconceptualize content in the target language (Filipino) based on expertise learned in content in English, a second language, using the modernized variety of Filipino now in the process of formation.

As Gonzalez (in press) has hypothesized, this process of reconceptualization is similar to translation and calls for the same types of skills. The translation will not be a surface structure to surface structure translation but will involve breaking down the semantic wholes into simpler units, perhaps at the clause level, and re-building the clauses into more complex sentences in the process of translation (synthesis). The important step in this process is the break-down of the macrosemantic units into smaller manageable units understandable to the neophyte and then building on these units by different semantic combinations which will be symbolized or expressed or realized by complex syntactic structures.

This kind of translation, consisting of translating highly complex and abstract displaced speech of non-contextualized written communication into simpler, perhaps less abstract, displaced speech or noncontextualized written communication for the easier understanding of the neophyte in secondary school, takes a special talent that not all individuals have, even if they happen to be versatile in English or in Filipino. Ability in translation is a talent by itself; there are good and there are poor translators. The problem in this case is that under the

new order of things every social science teacher in secondary schools and every social studies teacher in primary schools is expected to be a good translator as well as popularizer or simplifier of the content learned in English at a more abstract level. As in German scholarship, all teachers of social studies/social sciences in the Philippines must begin from the *Grund* and build up the content structure step-by-step through explanation of operational concepts and principles, to communicate the message in the new language.

This is a major undertaking for the teachers involved since the common experience of most teachers is that it is easy to teach content in the language in which one has learned that content, e.g., even Thai speakers of English find it more comfortable to explain applied mathematical concepts of engineering in English rather than in Thai, even though their Thai is much better in ordinary communication than their English, simply because they learned the content in engineering in English rather than Thai.

Wanted: A Theoretical Framework and Model for Training Teachers to Make the Shift.

As yet, there is no model existent, either in the Philippines or elsewhere, to provide the educational planner and the educational supervisor with a tried and validated means of training teachers of social studies/social sciences or any content subject to make the transition from English to Filipino. A similar difficulty arises undoubtedly when someone teaching content in English has to communicate the same in Malay.

Thus far, in the Philippine experience, the process of re-training teachers has had no theoretical framework; the training has been carried out by a process of trial-and-error and through some non-empirical quasi-intuitive guesses that a particular set of techniques might work.

Teacher-trainees then re-learn the concepts of the discipline in Filipino (repeating what they already know in English, assuming that they have the intellectual training for learning the subject matter in English; this is not always the case) by going through the actual process with the guidance and tutelage of a lecturer/discussant whose special talents include easy-to-comprehend communication of the subject matter in Filipino backed by adequate discipline competence. The teacher-trainors have had very little training themselves, but they have the aptitude and natural ability to make the shift even without elaborate

training; teachers having this special talent have been used as special trainers for these sessions.

In the meantime, materials for the content subject are prepared and disseminated and the materials made the subject of lectures by experts able to carry on the lectures and the discussions in Filipino, of varying variety and quality, with more or less extensive use of loanwords.

Assignments are given, to be written in Filipino; recitation in class and oral interaction is carried on in Filipino; the final tests are in Filipino.

As added assignments, teachers are asked to write lesson plans in Filipino using the distributed materials as models; these plans are shared among group members so that there are complete lesson plans for the entire set of materials, if the tasks assigned are accomplished.

The basic rule is that the more practice, the better competence and the easier the shift. Individual differences and aptitudes are expected, with some doing outstanding work and becoming role models, with others limping their way through the materials and using willingly or not a code-switching variety of English and Filipino. No measures thus far have been taken to gauge if practice indeed makes perfect by evaluating the longterm benefits of these training programs.

What is lacking at present, then, is a theoretical underpinning to the process, borrowing from psychology and communication theory as well as sociology.

Mention has already been made of the need for a ready set of terms and a ready set of texts for use. These lexical inventories and the text build-up are done by applied linguists and specialists in the field with both intellectual and language-use competence.

The terms and the texts must be accepted by a group of 'significant others' so that there will be people who understand what is written and said without new efforts at translation; the build-up for such acceptability is described in the literature on the sociology of knowledge; from these descriptions we may derive some generalizations based on past observations on how educational innovation and new concepts and principles spread in academia.

The psychology of language has not reached a stage when it can give rules and procedures for mastering discourse or text build-up in a language which one possesses as a native speaker but a variety of which one has not yet mastered. In fact, among native speakers, the process of mastering the scholarly register of their native languages is actually the process of education itself and takes several years of basic and specialized education. What saves the Filipino teacher from having to spend so much time is the fact that he is already a native speaker or at least a fluent speaker of a national lingua franca and its variety of colloquial speech and that he has already learned the content, albeit in English, a second language. He now has to backtrack, as it were, and re-express the same concepts in Filipino but in a variety of Filipino which has not yet been stabilized but is in the process of standardization. Psychology can describe what is happening and may even posit which parts of the brain are involved in the processing, including the process of translation itself. But it has not reached a stage when it can explain how this process takes place and why it is easier for some rather than for others, other than to state that some individuals have a better aptitude for this kind of activity more than others.

This is the state of the art at present. Beyond it we can only guess, intuit, and using cookbook techniques, combine necessary elements, process them, and hope they will work. We can evaluate the finished product by using a standardized measure of achievement or accomplishment.

Summary and Conclusion

In this exposition, I have attempted to describe the Philippine experience of classroom medium of instruction shift from English, a second language, to Filipino, either a first language or a lingua franca one soon learns in the community and in the school.

I have pointed out the problems involved in making the shift which are empirically verifiable through a series of attestations on the difficulties of implementing the bilingual education policy.

The problems arise from two separate though interrelated sources: the obvious problem of translating content from English to Filipino, presupposing prior mastery of the subject matter and a command of its prevailing paradigm, its methodology, its operational concepts and principles, and knowledge of its current findings; the more difficult problem of using a target language (Filipino) which though a first language for some or a second language which has been learned as a lingua franca by others and therefore one learnable even in a non-school

environment, has not been sufficiently modernized as a language of scholarly discourse. In the process of using this language, therefore, one is not only translating but attempting to create a new register and some texts in the target language. It is these two aspects which create difficulties for the teachers and not merely the problem of translation. The second process involves the creation of or acceptance of a terminological inventory in the process of acceptance or standardization and a style of discourse and rhetoric which is also in the process of formation, whose conventions have not yet been fixed, and whose general acceptability is still a matter of idiosyncratic choice.

Thus far, training to make the shift has considered in techniques of "learning by doing" using a cookbook approach without fully knowing if and why these techniques will work. There is a process of awareness build-up through lectures, exposure to some texts, materials production from these texts, use of these texts in lectures, and listening to lectures and participating in discussions and interacting with professors who through native talent have made the breakthrough and can communicate their abstract subject matter in Filipino. These are then the role models for teachers insofar as the shift is concerned.

The theoretical foundation for the success of the training program has yet to be spelled out, but its elements would call for principles and concepts from the psychology of language and the psychology of thought and translation, the sociology of knowledge and sociolinguistics, sociolinguistics applied to the process of language standardization and cultivation and most likely propagation or dissemination.

Teacher training to make the shift will require continuing research into the process described involving the findings of the background disciplines and borrowing from their methodologies to discover which techniques work and more importantly, if possible, why and how.

Conclusion

It is important to emphasize by way of conclusion that the Philippine problem I have described is found likewise in Malaysia and in Indonesia, although in these countries, there has been much more experience than in the Philippines. One suspects, too, that a similar problem exists for Thai, Putonghua, Vietnamese, Cambodian, Laotian, wherever the langauge needs development in a special register, in the latter case, science and technology, for a language may have a rich

literary tradition without a scientific one. The latter will involve the same problems of text build-up, reconceptualization, and translation.

The findings from the experiences of these countries thus far indicate that language cultivation and elaboration is more than lexical coinage and the enrichment of the treasure trove of vocabulary or *Wortschatz* of the language. Nor is it even a matter of the acceptance of the terminological terms putatively proposed. The task is much more complicated because it calls for larger structures beyond the lexemes to macrostructures consisting of sentential compounds and discourse structures both written and oral, governed by both rhetorical conventions and the special language of science and technology, expressing both substantive content and methodologically accepted conventions or the prevailing paradigm and methodology of the discipline.

The process of reconceptualization and translation is more difficult for some than for others, depending on aptitude; this area of discourse needs further research as we have precious little data on this topic except the realization that it is difficult and that some are able to hurdle the difficulties better than others.

We have also to find out what kind of training exercises and activities will facilitate the acquisition of the skills of translation and register building in the new language. What facilitates or hinders the processes? Is there an optimal age when this can be done? Is it too late for shifting among senior teachers? Must our resources for training for the shift be concentrated among young teachers, especially in teacher-training colleges? How does one create and manage a climate of change where the new policy is acceptable and how does one manage change when the very people fighting the change are the senior faculty in these colleges of education who should themselves be the first ones to set the pace for the shift and give the example of willingness and eagerness?

Obviously, those of us involved in language teacher training and research in this area have our work cut out for us even into the next century.

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LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL COHESION

Ian G Malcolm

Social and Linguistic Diversity

I begin by stating a truism with respect to society: Social and linguistic diversity and inequality are ever-present and are systematically interrelated. The richness of inter-lingual and intra-lingual variation, and the social meanings carried by such variation, have been documented by sociolinguistics in societies all over the world, and where there is linguistic difference there is always the potential for it to be associated with social inequality.

According to the recently released language and literacy policy document of the Australian Government (Australian Department of Employment, Education and Training, 1991:1) a strong relationship has been revealed between low levels of literacy or English language competence and high levels of unemployment and other forms of social disadvantage. This has come to be the predominant concern of Australian language policy.

For Australians, written standard English has become the meeting ground of social and linguistic inequality. The dominance of written English in Australia reflects the dominance of an educated, native-English-speaking population and the orientation of that society to Western industrialism (Kalantzis, et al, 1989). Historically speaking, it represents the result of a social and linguistic opposition, similar to that which has led to the dominance of English in the United States, of which Robert Phillipson has said:

> The establishment of English as a common national language has involved tragedy and language loss for both indigenous and immigrant groups, (1991:49).

In similar vein, Yukio Tsuda has argued that the American nation "has been established on the deaths of numerous languages" (1986:30) and that:

> The nation-building of the United States was virtually made possible by imposing English upon the native Americans and non-English-speaking immigrants and making them give up their own languages (Tsuda, 1986:29).

Whether the language shift of many of the immigrants to the United States was desired or imposed is, I think, a more open question than Tsuda would have it appear. The fact remains, however, that the appearance of linguistic uniformity in a society may well be more problematic than it seems, and may invite what Giroux has called:

> a commitment to penetrate the world of objectified appearances and to expose the underlying social relationships they often conceal (1983:8).

At the international level, the domination of English is seen by Phillipson as the result of "British and American policy to promote English overseas as a means of extending and expanding influence" (1991:48). The effect, as detailed by Tsuda, is that English dominates to the extent that 76% of all secondary students in the non-English speaking world, excluding China, are studying English (1986:1). Even in countries which have shaken off a colonial past, European languages continue to confer prestige upon their users (Tsuda, 1986:3). Now, given that, in all societies, both social diversity and linguistic diversity are present to a greater or lesser extent, and that the distribution of linguistic varieties within the society relates to the members of the society in ways that elevate some over others, the management of the use of language varieties within a society has symbolic significance. Put more simply, those who seek to control a society will, of necessity, seek at the same time to control the way that society uses language. So we find that increasingly, the "management" (Advisory Council on Multicultural Affairs, 1988:1) of linguistic diversity is an issue for governments, and the options open to governments seem to be constrained by irresistible political and economic considerations.

In managing linguistic diversity in a society, the authorities are seeking to achieve social ends by linguistic means, that is, by managing language use in a particular way, they seek to reinforce, or to produce, particular perceptions as to how the society is, or ought to be.

Often, one of the primary social goals that language planning is used to achieve is that of social cohesion. (See, e.g. Australian Ethnic Affairs Council Committee on Multicultural Education, 1979:2, Australian Council on Population and Ethnic Affairs, 1982:14, Advisory Council on Multicultural Affairs, 1988:2, Australian Council on Population and Ethnic Affairs, 1982:14, Advisory Council on Multicultural Affairs, 1988:2, Kalantzis, et al 1989:67). Cohesion has been defined as "a state or situation in which all the parts or ideas fit together well so that they form a unified whole" (Collins Cobuild Dictionary). A society which is cohesive will have interrelationships among its parts which will enhance its sense of unity.

To some extent there seems to be a conflict between the unity sought in social cohesion and the diversity which is the social and linguistic reality. However, diversity can co-exist with unity and may even promote it. Cohesion does not depend on the sameness of the interrelated parts. There is, then, an ongoing tension underlying social planning in relation to language. Should social or linguistic diversity be denied in the interests of social cohesion, or should they be exploited to promote it?

Language Education and Diversity

Language educators are, of course, the executors, at the educational level, of policy decisions which have been determined by governments. Their activity actualizes within school, college and university judgements which have been made with respect to the priority of certain linguistic forms in a society over others. John Earl Joseph has observed:

> The awareness of variants seems inevitably to be accompanied by value judgement. For any number of possible reasons, wherever variants are in competition, one will always be preferred to the other, creating hierarchies which it is the task of language education to inculcate. The canonical form of such education is 'Say x, not y.' (1987:16).

My second main observation, then, again a truism, is that language education has always had a social as well as an educational dimension. Language educators, even if they do no more than mechanically teach what they have been told to teach, are reinforcing certain perceptions about the values which are attached to diverse forms of language.

It is, of course, not only the forms of language which carry with them social perceptions, but also the functions. For example, the very fact of teaching people to read is making a social statement. This is especially apparent in the Third World context, for, as Deckert has pointed out:

> ...reading as a highly individualistic individual activity...flourishes mainly in a kind of socio-political climate that does not often prevail in Third World countries (1987:159).

Likewise, although it may be desirable to teach for communicative competence and focus on language in use, an essential question to face is: Whose use? Too often the question has been answered, by implication, with an ethnocentric bias towards English native speakers.

Christina Bratt Paulston has condemned as "cultural imperialism" the assumption that learners of English in, say, China should use it in a way culturally appropriate in U.S.A. (1987:70). Just as English serves the function of "an economic and political statement of citizens of the world" (Paulston, 1987:70) for the people of China, it serves the function of a "working language" for the people of Singapore. It is necessary for this functional perspective to be manifested in the way in which English is taught and examined in Singapore, and for the complementary functions of the Singaporean mother tongues to be equally manifested if what Dr Seet Ai Mee last year in opening the RELC Regional Seminar called the "Singaporean Dilemma" - the declining competence in the mother tongue - is to be satisfactorily dealt with.

A Fast-Changing World

As the theme of this seminar reminds us, this is a fast-changing world, and one of the ways in which change is registered is in the attitudes taken to linguistic diversity. Here I come to my third major point, this time, I think, <u>not</u> a truism. Socio-political orientations within society in relation to language education are subject to change, and a key dimension in such change is the way in which social uniformity and linguistic uniformity, respectively, are evaluated. There is a fundamental dilemma underlying all social and educational planning with respect to language which stems from the nature of society and language, as stated in my first observation, that is, that both are characterised by diversity. It would make life so much more simple if we all thought alike, acted alike and spoke alike. And though governments know that we don't, they are often inclined to treat us as if we did, or as if we ought to. There is, then, a constant shifting of public policy between differing evaluations of social and linguistic diversity.

Indeed, one way of distinguishing the major alternative policy orientations is by looking at the possibilities, expressed terms of extreme positions, for the evaluation of social diversity and linguistic diversity respectively.

I have tried to express these in Figure i.

Evaluation of Social Diversity	Evaluation of Linguistic Diversity	
LOW	LOW	ASSIMILATION
HIGH	HIGH	MULTICULTURALISM
HIGH	LOW	NATIONALISM
LOW	HIGH	INSTRUMENTALISM

Figure i: The Uniformity-Diversity Tension and Public Policy.

I am suggesting here that four predominant orientations may be observed in social policy relating to linguistic and social diversity and that these may be distinguished on the basis of the matching of a particular evaluation of social diversity with a particular evaluation of linguistic diversity. Of course, as is usual in matters of social analysis, we cannot talk in terms of totally discrete categories but rather of emphases. I believe that the four emphases:assimilation, multiculturalism, nationalism, and instrumentalism have been commonly in evidence in contemporary societies, not least in my native Australia, where three of them have underlain three major policy determinations over the past forty years.

Assimilation is a policy which emphasises at the same time social uniformity and linguistic uniformity. It held sway in Australia during the post-war years when immigration deliberately favoured people of European descent, who, after arrival were called "New Australians" and expected to conform to majority norms, both linguistically and socially. The only language education need that was recognized for these people was the need to learn English. From the standpoint of assimilation, language differences in society are a problem which, if ignored, may go away.

At the other end of the scale is the policy of multiculturalism, which prevailed in Australia throughout the 70s and 80s. One of the foundations of multiculturalism is "a comprehensive acceptance of human diversity" (Australian Council on Population and Ethnic Affairs, 1982:33). This policy then places a high evaluation on both social and linguistic diversity. It encourages the maintenance of community languages and recognizes the right (in its Australian expression) of non-English speakers to have access to government services in their own languages.

Where the assimilation policy seeks to achieve social cohesion by maintaining, or promoting, social and linguistic homogeneity, multiculturalism seeks to achieve it by ensuring access and equity to all within a heterogeneous society. From the standpoint of multiculturalism, languages are a human and community resource, and perform an integrative function in society.

I propose the term nationalism, to refer to a policy which acknowledges social diversity but seeks to achieve national unity through the promotion of one language as something all members of the society have in common. Thus, Bislama, an English lexifier Creole, serves as national language and "language of political protest and Melanesian solidarity" (Thomas, 1989:241) in Vanuatu, where there are 105 indigenous and two metropolitan languages, and Tok Pisin is being strongly advocated as the national language in equally multilingual Papua New Guinea (Kale, 1989:187), though it has to compete with English which has far better claims to meeting the demands of instrumentalism. From the standpoint of nationalism, language differences in society are an obstacle to political unity.

I am using the term instrumentalism to refer to a policy which values linguistic diversity of a particular kind within a context of social uniformity. Such a policy has a long history in, for example, China and Japan where a strong conservatism with respect to traditional social values has been accompanied by a promotion of the use of foreign languages for purely instrumental purposes. This is embodied in the Chinese "Ti-Yong" concept, which distinguishes the Ti, or "essence", which is accessible through the home language from the Yong, or "utility," which is served by the foreign language (Chen, 1989:47). A similar expression in Japanese, "wakon yôsai," differentiates Japanese spirit from Western skills (Shimbori, 1960:97). From the standpoint of instrumentalism, languages have value only insofar as they serve the achievement of certain economic or other goals.

I do not want to make these four policy emphases appear more mutually exclusive than they are. Clearly, elements of more than one may co-exist in the same policy, though it is usually arguable that one predominates.

In Australia the nineties have seen a shift away from multiculturalism in the direction of instrumentalism, with a de-emphasis on the use and public support of community languages and an apparent loss of confidence in their ability to contribute to social cohesion. In their place, foreign languages are being promoted for purely pragmatic, or "strategic" purposes.

There are evidences from at least Australia, the U.K. and the U.S.A. that, in the opposition between uniformity and diversity, with respect to public policy on

language and culture, uniformity is gaining the ascendancy. Instrumental goals are being promoted above integrative goals in language learning and the facts of social diversity which once had the spotlight are being ignored.

Language Education and Public Policy

What are the implications of these changes in public policy for education in societies which continue, whatever the policy, to exhibit linguistic and dialectal diversity? Figure ii represents an attempt to clarify these.

Socio-Political Orientation	Assimilation	Nationalism	Instrumentalism	Multiculturalism
Educational application: languages	Monolingualism	Subtractive bilingualism	Additive bilingualism	Community language maintenance
Educational application: non-standard dialects	Eradicationism	Monodialect-alism	Bidialectalism	Appreciation of dialect differences

Figure ii: Language Education in Relation to Public Policy

Figure ii is not intended to indicate necessary relationships between the various socio-political orientations and educational policies or programmes, but rather to suggest consistencies which would make certain practices in language education seem more plausible than others while certain commitments in social policy prevail.

Assimilation is essentially a policy which turns a blind eye to both the social and the linguistic dimensions of diversity within a society. The educational counterpart of this is to regard monolingualism as normative and to regard interlanguage speakers in terms only of their deficiencies in the language of education. Such students would require remediation.

Similarly, an assimilationist view of non-standard dialect speakers would see their dialect in terms of deficit of the standard dialect, and would require it to be eradicated and replaced so that the student had an adequate linguistic medium of education.

An orientation towards nationalism would involve, for students who are not speakers of the national language, imposed bilingualism in a language which may serve no other purpose than that of purported national unification. Such bilingualism may be subtractive insofar as it implicitly denies the validity of the language the student brings to school, and, indeed, it may subordinate the indigenous values which that language embodies to those of a majority group within or even outside of the culture. Where nationalism is the predominant orientation, dialectal diversity is not likely to be recognized, in that the intention is to promote a view of language as unified and normative. Nationalism, as a language policy objective, is just one step removed from assimilation.

In the U.S.A., as Adam (1991:448) has pointed out, promoters of English in the interests of a 'melting pot' view of society, have repudiated the maintenance of home languages as un-American.

Instrumentalism is associated with the increasing orientation of education to 'labour market requirements' and the 'national good,' perceived in economic terms (see Abbott-Chapman, et al, 1991:8,19). It favours the introduction of a new language into the education system on the basis of its usefulness to the learner or the society.

Such a language may become at some point a medium of education, as in the case of English in many schools in Asia, or French in the Canadian immersion programmes. Instrumentalism always involves additive bilingualism (Lambert's term: see Kalantzis et al 1989:37), in that it adds a language to the student's linguistic repertoire without, at least in the early stages, displacing the student's main language. However, as the Singaporean experience has shown, over a period of time, a language adopted into a community for essentially instrumental purposes may acquire a life of its own, leading to the functional depletion of the mother tongue for some speakers and, perhaps, in time, to language shift. This, it seems to me, is one of the hazards involved in moving too far towards instrumentalism and too far away from multiculturalism as the emphasis of overall policy in a multicultural society.

In the case of students who speak a non-standard dialect of the language of education, the educational policy of bidialectalism or biloquialism is close in spirit to instrumentalism, in that it takes both the non-standard dialect of the learner and the standard language into the educational process with the non-standard dialect being a bridge to the standard, which is the ultimate vehicle of education.

Where multiculturalism is the policy, linguistic diversity is seen as essential to both the content and context of learning, rather than being a hindrance to learning or a means to another end. Thus, multicultural policies favour the inclusion of community language maintenance programmes in schooling. While this may appear a realistic objective in terms of its due recognition of the fact of cultural diversity, it comes up against the problem of the intractable extent of that diversity, in that it is not uncommon in some schools to have 20 or more community languages represented. Even the most robust economies of First World countries have not been able to meet the cost to the public purse of a thoroughgoing multiculturalism in public education. This fact, and the economic downturn, no doubt, are directly related to the current retreat from multiculturalism towards instrumentalism. A token alternative has been to include some component of multicultural studies and general language awareness in the school curriculum and to expect communities, with perhaps some government subsidy, to bear the cost of community language maintenance programmes.

When it comes to non-standard dialect speaking children, the educational approach which fits best with a multicultural policy is that which has been called "appreciation of dialect differences" (Tomaras, 1980:33), according to which no attempt is made to change the speech of the non-standard dialect speaker, but teachers, rather, make the adjustment by learning to accept and understand the non-standard dialect speaking child's speech and to use it as a legitimate base for further language development.

Language Teacher Education for Social Cohesion

If such relationships as I have outlined exist between society, social policy and language education, then it is a reasonable expectation of language teacher education that it should help teachers to be aware of them. Teachers with enhanced awareness are those on whom we depend for improving social cohesion through language education. I would advocate aiming in language teacher education for enhanced awareness in five areas: self-awareness, social awareness, student awareness, language awareness and pedagogical awareness.

1. Language teacher education should be self-aware, in terms of the socio-political context in which it operates. Education, including language teacher education, operates in a context where the constants of social and linguistic diversity are reflected in a contingent and imperfect way in public policy. It is important that the language teacher educator maintains an awareness both of the constants which are the inevitable facts of

linguistic and social variation and of the variables which are the changing emphases of public policy, and which will, for different reasons, from time to time elevate one linguistic or social fact over another. Future language teachers will, no doubt, in the course of their career, pass through periodical changes of public policy, but the existence of, and the principles underlying, linguistic diversity in the context in which they are teaching will not change. They need in their teacher education to be enabled to see the educational policy demands of the present against a background of unchanging sociolinguistic principles.

2. A second requirement is social awareness. An adequate teacher education should provide teachers with an awareness of the socio-cultural dimension of their activity and a capacity to evaluate it. The time spent in the teacher education institution should include ample time for thinking. Teacher education should affect people at more than a superficial level. It may, as Tony Wright has said, "necessitate teachers coming to terms with their deeper levels of thought and action" (1990:85). Leo Bartlett and others have called for the development of a "reflective teacher". To become a critically reflective teacher, according to Bartlett,

> means we shall engage in systematic and social forms of inquiry that examine the origin and consequences of everyday teaching so that we come to see the factors that impede change and thus improvement. (Bartlett, 1990:206).

To begin with, a teacher in training should have an awareness of the significance of the selection of languages made by the curriculum. Why do some people not succeed as well as others in an education system? One reason we know is socio-linguistic. To quote Cummins,

> ...considerable research data suggest that, for dominated minorities, the extent to which students' language and culture are incorporated into the school program constitutes a significant predictor of academic success...(quoted in Ada, 1991:449).

A teacher, especially a junior teacher, may not yet have much influence over what languages are recognized in the education being provided. But at least s/he needs to be armed with an awareness of the relationship between the language choice in the curriculum and chances of educational success. Otherwise s/he may blame the students, or himself/herself, for a failure which may be essentially socially determined.

And with respect to the selection of the standard dialect, there is a background of knowledge that the teacher ought to be aware of. What is the standard, and why do we teach it? John Earl Joseph (1987:x) has observed that in doing so we are following a relatively recent European cultural tradition. I have referred to a trend in Australia (though it is not limited to Australia) for a greater attention to prescriptive standards in language. Why is there a public clamour pressuring educational authorities to move in this direction? What are the standard features, anyway, but markers of the superiority of certain members of society! Joseph observes:

> If the standard language were 'native' to a given person, he or she would not need to study it... Prescriptive language education is the means by which standard languages maintain a community of users...By regulating admission to its educational institutions, a culture can very directly control whether knowledge of the standard will be reserved for a select few or spread to those who did not previously have access to it: this is the fundamentally political aspect of language education. (Joseph, 1987:17).

Of course, I am not suggesting that we abandon standards with respect to the languages we are teaching. But I am suggesting that teachers should be aware of what, in terms of the socio-political context, they are doing when they are teaching standard languages. They owe it to their non-standard dialect speaking students to have such knowledge.

Another consideration, with respect to standards, is where the norms should come from, and why. The native speaker norm, long accepted as authoritative in all places where English is taught, and used as the basis for most applied linguistic research used to inform the teaching of English as a foreign language, is being seen now by some as part of a hidden agenda which falsifies the reality of the way English operates in many non-native speaking countries. Phillipson has argued, in this regard:

> The native speaker norm, which is the standard against which the second/foreign language learner is compared, is not a 'neutral' phenomenon, but one which is historically created, and in our class-biased society it serves as a filter for social and educational success...In other words, the theories that SLA research draws on conceal social reality...(Phillipson, 1991:39).

As teachers are made aware of the social implications of the kind of tasks in which they are routinely involved, they will have a basis for understanding how language can be illegitimately used to circumscribe the life chances of some societies and some members of society.

Indeed, there are some important myths that need to be dispelled as part of the process of teacher education, and one is the myth that linguistic conformity to the norms of a dominant group in a society will be rewarded by acceptance into that group. As Ada has observed,

> In spite of the fact that the American society claims to respect the ideals of equality, diversity and inclusion, the reality for language minority people has been inequality, the push for conformity to one standard, and exclusion. One of the greatest contradictions confronting minorities is that society urges them to become mainstream and thereby abandon their language and cultural traditions, but even after they assume the views and behaviour of the majority culture in hope of increased acceptance, they often continue to be victimized by the same forces that compelled their conformity (Ada, 1991:453).

A teacher education for social cohesion must expose the misleading appearance of cohesion which underlies a linguistic uniformity which is the result of inequality.

It is necessary also that teachers be made aware, as part of their education, of language education problems which are really the reflection of social problems, or of the mismatch between social realities and educational goals. An obvious example is literacy. The endemic "literacy crises," which serve as such convenient standbys to politicians seeking election, can often, as Resnick and Resnick (1991:136) have said,

> be attributed to the relatively rapid extension to large populations of educational criteria that were once applied to only a limited elite.

Associated with this may be the recognition, on the part of the would-be literate, that literacy is being offered to them along with assorted cultural baggage which they are not prepared to accept because of its denial of the way of life they know (McLaren, 1991:294).

Another area in which teacher awareness can be enhanced is that of classroom discourse. Teachers, as they manage classroom discourse are regulating not only the subject matter and the participation of the students, but also the extent to which the students are able to maintain, or are forced to lose, face (Malcolm, 1991). Often, this may be unconscious, but an analysis of transcripts from practice teaching can bring it to the awareness of the trainee teacher. It has been argued (Bordieu, in Giroux, 1983:32) that some of the most trival things teachers say may be the most revealing, in that, in focusing on little details of dress, bearing and manners, they may be imposing on students class-based systems of behaviour. A teacher education for social cohesion may well begin as one designed to achieve such cohesion in linguistically and socially diverse classrooms.

3. It has been claimed by Christopher Brumfit (1987:16) that teacher education has, since the mid-sixties, focused decreasingly on personal development and become more and more technocratized. There is, however, substantial evidence that, especially in the field of language education, teacher attitudes, particularly in relation to their expectations of their students, constitute one of the more important variables affecting student success. A teacher should be an interesting person, a person who is stimulating to talk to and who will cause students to want to talk. As Brumfit has said,

> It matters very little what learners can do in the language if they have no motivation, knowledge of the world and local and foreign cultures, or self-confidence to make use of what they can technically perform for the expression of their own needs, feelings and ideas. (1987:19).

In 1990 I was involved in a study of the teaching of languages in all the institutions of higher education in Australia. One of the things we were seeking to find out was what motivated students to learn languages and teachers to teach them. The results clearly showed that the students' main motivation in learning languages at university was to use them, especially in spoken form, in interaction with native speakers, and in their employment.

The students and graduates we surveyed agreed in ranking oral/aural skills top of the list of their desired course outcomes, and in expressing the desire to have their courses oriented more to oral communication. When asked

why they chose to teach languages, a strong majority of the teachers gave as their reason "love of languages." (See further, Leal, 1991).

What attracts people about languages, whether as students or as teachers, is the possibility of using them in authentic communication. Teacher education should foster and build on this natural attraction which languages possess. For this, teachers need to be relaxed, accepting persons who are approachable and interesting to talk to. Their teacher education should provide both the opportunity for developing fluency in the language and the personal development to make them people worth talking to.

It is also necessary for teachers to be given in their training an awareness of the linguistic and experiential resources which students bring to education, so that they may draw on this in their teaching. Alma Flor Ada has proposed what she calls "creative education" in language teaching, by which she means,

> ...students learn to understand and appreciate themselves, to use that understanding as a means of valuing the diversity of others, to reflect critically upon their experiences so that these can be a source of growth, and to respond creatively to the world around them (Ada, 1991:449).

It can be expected, then, that one of the consequences of producing reflective teachers, if we do it properly, will be that we will produce reflective students, and that both will use one another as a resource for learning.

4. Fourthly, we need to give our prospective language teachers language awareness. Their teacher education should equip them to deal with language variation in an informed way.

As we have observed, linguistic diversity is all-pervasive and, even if it is not represented in the education system, it will be represented in the students.

Often teachers will encounter language variation when students say things to them which they don't immediately understand. When this happens, a properly sensitized teacher will explore the misunderstanding and seek to arrive at an explanation for it on linguistic or pragmatic principles.

Observations in many classrooms (reported on in Malcolm, 1991) have shown me that people need to be trained to do this. When they lack that training, they are liable to correct the child for what is not in error, ignore what the child has said, or make a response which, from the child's point of view, is deviant.

They also need awareness of the facts about language diversity in relation to education. As we have observed, the pendulum of public policy is liable to swing between the poles of acceptance and rejection of linguistic diversity, and when public policy favours uniformity, arguments about the dangers of multilingualism in education will sound plausible. Teachers need to be equipped with knowledge that bilingualism need not be subtractive and that the educational recognition of the mother tongue in an appropriate programme does not threaten the acquisition of a second language as a medium of education (c.f. Ada, 1991:448). Such knowledge needs to be accompanied by a level of awareness of social diversity which goes beyond the "simple pluralist model" (Kalantzis, et al, 1989) which has lain behind a now largely discredited concept of multicultural education.

Not least, teachers need awareness of how <u>they</u> use language in classrooms, and to be alerted to where they may attempt to settle matters on the basis of their superior power rather than on the basis of what has actually been said or intended by the child.

5. Finally, teacher education needs to incorporate <u>pedagogical</u> awareness. I am not here referring to the content of methodology courses, but rather to awareness, on the part of the teacher educator, of how to teach in a higher education setting.

There is a temptation in universities to value research above teaching, despite the fact that, to produce good researchers, universities must first engage in good teaching. Ernest Boyer, who is president of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, has argued for the reinstatement of teaching at university level as a scholarly enterprise.

According to this view, teacher educators in universities and colleges should exhibit "the scholarship of teaching" (1992:26,28). In particular, he notes that:

> ...knowing and learning are communal acts. With this vision, great teachers create a common ground of intellectual

> commitment. They stimulate active, not passive, learning and encourage students to be critical, creative thinkers, with the capacity to go on learning after their college days are over (Boyer, 1992:28).

Where teaching is thus conceived, the institution of learning is a place of challenge and extension, but also of collaboration and mutual endeavour. It illustrates the level of honest enquiry and of mutual acceptance of teacher and learner which, one would hope, the trainee teacher would carry into the context where he is the mentor.

Universities should be places for mutual growth of teacher and taught in the face of challenging issues which do not yield unilateral answers.

Many teachers in bilingual classes, according to a recent study in the U.S.A., have the sense of being low in prestige, isolated, inadequate and powerless. The author of this study reports:

> Unfortunately, many teacher education programs seem designed to train teachers to accept social realities rather than to question them. Teachers are trained to conform to a mechanistic definition of their role rather than to recognize it as involving a relationship between human beings, with a possibility of growth for both teachers and students (Ada, 1991:449-450).

We need to look forward to a language teacher education which will be both based on awareness and leading towards awareness as teachers and teachers-to-be are engaged together in "a relationship of authentic dialogue" (Freire, 1991:253).

Conclusion

This paper has attempted to argue the case for incorporating a "rich socio-cultural dimesion" (Das, 1987:22) into language teacher education. If this is to happen, how can it start?

I am told that the famous conductor Herbert von Karajan was once asked why he preferred the Berlin Philharmonic to the Vienna Philharmonic. He replied: "When I tell the Berliners to step forward, they do it; when I tell the Viennese to

step forward they do it, then they ask why." I am among you today as one who asks why, and who urges you and the teachers you train to do the same.

If linguistic diversity is a reflection of social diversity and, as such, of the complex of identities which makes a society unique, then language teaching, with the necessary selections it takes from, or additions it makes to, the linguistic repertoire of members of the society, and the implicit evaluations it makes of speaker selections, is deeply engaged in the maintenance or otherwise of social cohesion.

Teacher education can prepare teachers for this situation by making language education socially relevant. It will best do this, I believe, by working towards enhancing the awareness of teachers with respect to social and linguistic diversity, largely through raising questions about what, in the past, has often been taken for granted.

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